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Increasing job satisfaction for community college faculty and professional staff through a stress management model.

Shirley Cassara

University of Massachusetts Amherst

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INCREASING JOB SATISFACTION FOR COMMUNITY
COLLEGE FACULTY AND PROFESSIONAL STAFF
THROUGH A STRESS MANAGEMENT MODEL

A Dissertation Presented

by

SHIRLEY CASSARA

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

September , 1983

Education

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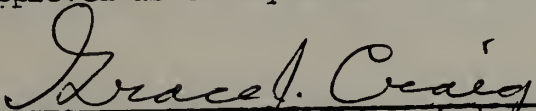
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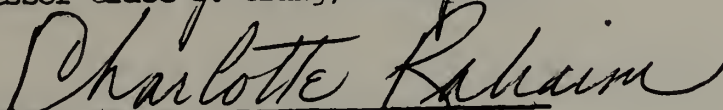
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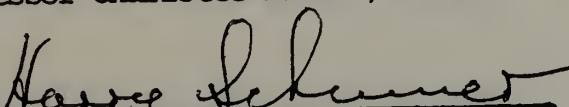
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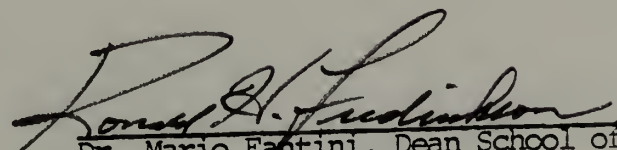
SHIRLEY CASSARÀ

Approved as to style and content by:


Professor Grace J. Craig, Chairperson


Professor Charlotte Rahaim, Member


Professor Harry Schumer, Member


Dr. Mario Fantini, Dean School of
Education

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to the students and faculty of the Field-Based Community College Program of the University of Massachusetts/Amherst, School of Education and to its dedicated and inspiring founder, Dr. Charlotte Rahiam.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

There is no doubt of the significant contribution to the preparation of the researcher and her research that was made by Beverly and Ernest Cassara; Gina McNeely; Marty McGlynn; Mary Ann Self; Kay Thompson; Florence Larson; my colleagues at Bunker Hill Community College; Doctors Craig, Rahaim and Schumer; Gerry and Brenda Krieger; and neither lastly nor least, Marcus Winder.

To them all I extend my heartfelt thanks and appreciation.

ABSTRACT

Increasing Job Satisfaction for Community
College Faculty and Professional Staff
Through a Stress Management Model
(September, 1983)

Shirley Cassara, A.B., Bard College
M.A., New York University, Ed.D, University of Massachusetts
Directed by: Dr. Grace J. Craig

This study was designed to examine possible connections between mature professional developmental level, locus of control and their relationship to managing stress to increase job satisfaction for members of a community college faculty and professional staff.

It was hypothesized that the faculty and professional staff members who had been teaching for at least five years and who had an internal locus of control would describe themselves as in need and desirous of finding new sources of personal job and life satisfaction.

It was further hypothesized that faculty and professional staff who operate with an internal locus of control would utilize stress management techniques to decrease their perceived stress and increase satisfaction. The design included administering four pre-test questionnaires including three stress profiles to measure levels of perceived stress and Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale. The

Subjects then participated in a series of workshop sessions. Subsequently, the three stress profiles were administered again as post-tests. The results of the pre- and post-tests were compared to determine changes in perceived stress levels. In addition, a follow-up interview was conducted with each participant.

Overall the results supported the hypotheses. The faculty and staff members who volunteered were found to be professionally mature, to have taught for five or more years and to have an internal locus of control orientation. While the post-test stress profiles showed an increase in stressful environmental factors, the Subjects reported a variety of ways in which their lives were more under control and that they were actively practising the strategies for stress management and for increasing their sense of satisfaction with their lives. It was also found that the stress profiles were more useful in acting as personal outlines for change than for statistical measurement of stress levels.

Conclusions drawn from this research indicate a definite place for personal development programs within academic faculty development schemes and should be kept distinct from the teaching improvement models. The need for both kinds of program to be equally available to faculty and professional staff is indicated.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter

I. INTRODUCTION.	1
Background.	2
The Problem to be Addressed	16
The Project	21
II. LITERATURE REVIEW	26
Stress and Its Implications	26
Internal - External Locus of Control. . .	50
Locus of Control and Job Satisfaction . .	53
III. METHODOLOGY	59
Introduction.	59
Hypothesis.	59
Design.	60
Subjects.	62
Instruments	64
Procedure	67
IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION.	102
Results	102
Discussion.	123
V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	128
BIBLIOGRAPHY	135
APPENDICES	140

LIST OF TABLES

1.	Results of Internal-External Locus of Control Scale107
2.	Correlated Sample Means for Pre and Post Stress Profile I Test Scores.111
3.	Correlated Sample Means for Pre and Post Stress Profile II Test Scores112
4.	Correlated Sample Means for Pre and Post Stress Profile III Test Scores.113
5.	Responses to Question #1 of Follow-Up Interview .	.116
6.	Second and Third Responses to Question #1 of Follow-Up Interview117
7.	Responses to Question #2 of Follow-Up Interview .	.118
8.	Responses to Question #3 of Follow-Up Interview .	.118
9.	Responses to Question #4 of Follow-Up Interview .	.120
10.	Responses to Question #5 of Follow-Up Interview .	.121

LIST OF FIGURES

1. Age of Workshop Participants. 63
2. Number of Years Participants Have Taught at
Bunker Hill Community College and in General. . 64
3. Distribution of Years In Service Of Faculty And
Professional Staff at Bunker Hill Community
College 104
4. Distribution of Scores On Rotter I-E Scale. . . . 108

C H A P T E R I

INTRODUCTION

In attempts to maintain high quality teaching in the community college system of Massachusetts attention needs to be paid to those who are doing the teaching, the developmental processes through which they progress, and the rewards that are necessary to keep their teaching skill at an optimal level.

While teacher training and preparation is central to what happens between teacher and student in the transmission of knowledge in the classroom, the teacher's attitude toward him or herself and the motivation which put that person into the teaching profession and sustains him or her there is the underpinning of the success of that person as a professional.

Until recently emphasis has been placed on helping teachers through "staff development" programs to improve their teaching skills. While this is valuable it is not the whole picture. Indications are now pointing to a need to provide teachers and professional staff with opportunities for personal development to enable them to sustain the attitudes that contribute to positive role models for students; a teaching task now being cited as an equally dynamic function of being a teacher as much as is transmitting subject matter (Mokros, 1980).

Background

How a teacher came to be a teacher will have an effect on his present perception of himself in his role. To examine this we need to consider the work of the adult developmental theorists who have considered the processes by which people select or opt for their occupational and professional choices.

The Puritan work ethic which effects and sometimes binds our American concept of the role of work presumably started with the necessity of work by all the citizens of the community for the actual physical survival of the community (Coleman, 1974). "Those who will not work, shall not eat" hardly leaves an allowance for job satisfaction except as it has a direct impact on a full stomach. This connection between the product of work and the needs of basic survival, as Maslow (1970) would title them, became inextricably bound up with the philosophy that brought the "founding fathers and mothers" to the "New World". This legacy has been passed on to us for generations. The modes by which we carry out its spirit and dictates have been modified by many factors including an industrial revolution which changed the nature of the work available (severing the connection between the fruit of one's labors and one's immediate survival and making money the intermediary between work and survival) and the cultural expectation brought to America by succeeding generations of new inhabitants from "the old countries" to the "new world".

Today work is often expected to provide an avenue to achievement of identity, self-definition, economic security, status, a chance to interact with others and an ability to contribute to society and family. This can be a tall order for the job alone to fulfill. Coleman (1974), in summarizing the literature from psychology and sociology, considers the relationship of work to self-expression to manifest itself in the following elements:

1. Personal identity. To a large extent people become what they do. In considering the vast amounts of life time devoted to one's job it is one of the most salient means of identifying oneself in our society. When asked who we are we almost always give an occupational response.

2. Self-esteem. The function of work for self-evaluation is closely related to personal identity. Work has the capacity to assure the individual of his or her ability to master self and environment. We use work situations to provide us with feedback about our ability to perform satisfactorily.

3. Social role. We use occupation as a way of determining status in our society. The status attributed to the breadwinners usually accrues to their families as well.

Coleman further points out that people who are forced to retire or who can not find employment tend to feel deprived of personal identity, self-esteem and social role. Terkel

(1974) provides plenty of evidence of this from his interviews on the subject of work. The people he interviewed unanimously supported the idea that work is necessary to their having a place in the world; in other words work contributes to their maintenance of physical and mental health.

In discovering the role of work in the development of mature adulthood, Erik Erikson (1963) has provided the foundation on which the majority of adult development theorists and researchers build. He describes four stages in the formation and execution of adulthood, the first three of which are central to the discussion of work identity and self-expression. The first is identity versus role confusion which encompasses the teenage years. The successful completion of the tasks that contribute to identity give the young adult a sense of who he is, where he has emerged from and where he is going. This, of necessity, includes an analysis of occupational skills and direction. The next stage Erikson entitles Intimacy versus Isolation. The tasks of this stage center around the process of linking oneself to another and forming one's own family unit. For Erikson the previous attainment of a sense of personal identity and the engagement in productive work that marks this period gives rise to the new interpersonal dimension of intimacy or if these tasks are incomplete or unsatisfactory; a sense of isolation.

The stage of generativity versus self-absorption and stagnation which describes the years of greatest personal productivity is the next to follow. If the person has successfully achieved the positive tasks of intimacy and identity he will have as his central concern the ways in which he can make a mark on the world. Generativity means that the person begins to be concerned with others beyond his immediate family, with future generations and the nature of society and the world in which those generations will live. Generativity does not rest only with parents; it can be found in any individual who actively concerns himself with the welfare of young people and with making the world a better place for them to live and work.

From his interviews Cole (1978) provides an understanding of the role work plays in formation of self-definition including an avenue for generative behavior. Ultimately his results show that we use our occupation or profession for self-expression and satisfaction in two different ways depending on our choice of work and our expectations of the results of our work.

One of these variations is that we use work as a source of secondary reinforcement and not as the end in itself in providing us with a status of adult responsibility. With adult-responsible status the person does not look for the actual job to be rewarding but instead the pay and his

earning power provides him with the means to perform socially acceptable functions such as providing for a family ("occupation").

The other variation is that work will provide the primary reinforcement ("career") so that creative self-fulfillment is the goal and money is a bi-product (and as such no less necessary for sustaining life). This implies that when the person has expectations of a job that are unrealistic, or if he has an inability to meet the job performance criteria he will suffer from a lowering of self-esteem and a personal devaluation, resulting in job dissatisfaction (Coleman, 1974).

On this subject Glasser (1975) notes that many people use work as a way of gaining a "successful identity through involvement with others" and through goals that help them be successfully involved. Not all people find successful identity in work or in other activities. He also makes the point that today, work helps people fulfill roles rather than achieve goals.

Van Hoose and Worth (1982) cite work as contributing to self-esteem in two ways. First, through the visible awareness of a person's efficacy and competence in dealing with the tasks of work, a person acquires a sense of control over both himself and his environment. Second, the person produces something when working that is valued by self and others. This makes the person feel worthwhile. (p162)

Havighurst (1972) has outlined for us what society expects of each age group in terms of activities to be accomplished in order to be seen as "on target" chronologically. These functions that each age group is expected to perform in order to be moving forever forward toward maturity are called "developmental tasks". An age appropriate task for adolescents and young adults, for instance, is choosing and getting started on an occupation. This concept of developmental tasks is used by many theorists as a frame of reference for describing adult activity.

How a person goes about choosing an occupation or career path and the stages he or she progresses through have been outlined by several people.

Holland, in 1959, proposed a theory of occupational choice that postulates that individual growth and development are influenced by both hereditary and environmental factors. As a result of learning and experiencing, the individual develops appropriate ways for responding to the environment. One of these demands is that each person make an occupational choice. So, faced with the need to choose a career the individual deals with this situation as with many other situations; at the time of vocational choice "the person is the product of his particular interaction with a variety of cultural and personal forces including peers, parents and significant adults, his social class, American culture, and

the physical environment." From these contacts and interactions, the person develops a preferred method of dealing with tasks that arise. He adjusts to his culture. The vocational choice is, in a sense, a choice which satisfies his adjustive orientation (Van Hoose and Worth, 1982, p.157).

Relying on principles of developmental psychology and self-concept Super (1957) generated a theory of vocational development. He purports that it is the self-concept that influences career decisions and guides a person through a career experience. His stages are:

1. Growth stage (birth to 14 years). This is a period of general physical and mental growth. In the later years of this stage, fantasy and likes and dislikes are the basis for vocational thinking.

2. Exploration stage (15 to 24 years). General exploration of work during mid-teens. Later, reality becomes the basis for vocational planning. During the early twenties, the individual makes an initial vocational commitment.

3. Establishment stage (25 - 44 years). Super believed that between the ages of twenty-five and thirty many persons may become dissatisfied with their career choice and may make a change in their work. A period of stable work begins at about age thirty and continues until approximately age forty-five. He describes this as the stabilization stage.

4. Maintenance stage (45 - 65 years). During this twenty year period, the person continues in the chosen career.

5. Decline stage (age 65 - death). During the sixty-five to seventy year-old period, vocational activity declines markedly. Vocational activity stops with retirement at about age seventy.

Super summarizes his views in the language of developmental tasks as follows:

- Ages 14 - 18: crystallizing a vocational preference.
- Ages 18 - 21: specifying a vocational preference.
- Ages 21 - 25: implementing a vocational preference.
- Ages 25 - 30: seeking stability in a vocation.
- Ages 30 - 50: consolidating status and advancing in a vocation.

It is important to also note that some people come to make occupational selection by way of negative choices. That is, people are often sure about what they do not want to do, while they are unclear about what they do want to do. Occupational possibilities are limited in this way and negative choices also form points of reference against which new possibilities are evaluated. In this way the field of choice is narrowed (Coleman 1974).

In summary, developmental theorists hold that the individual does not choose an occupation, per se, but makes a series of occupationally related choices at different periods of life that eventually result in occupational development. Occupational choice does not occur at a specific point in

life: rather occupational development emerges over a lengthy period of time as the individual pursues vocational and vocationally related goals. There is no right occupation for a given individual, because each person is capable of being happy and successful in a number of jobs. The adequacy of a person's life is not dependent on an occupation, rather it is determined by numerous aspects of living including occupation (Van Hoose and Worth, 1982).

Occupational growth as a community college teacher. Helen Fields in her research and application of adult developmental theories to the professional development of the community college faculty member offers this profile based on her interviews. It describes the first eight years of teaching.

1. An inexperienced college teacher has attended graduate school for some years, has earned one or more advanced degrees, and has achieved a reasonably high level of mastery in her subject area. In most cases, she has had little or no instruction or practise in teaching, and at the beginning of a teaching career, is frequently intimidated by students so much that her principle interest is largely egocentric. This condition evolves possibly as the result of the belief, held by man, that any person is able to teach to others that which he himself has learned. So oriented, the inexperienced teacher believes she needs no instruction in how to teach. She frequently has difficulty organizing

material and selecting from among the funds of knowledge she has acquired that which would be appropriate, with no experience in classroom management, or in knowing how to respond to students. Students are of tertiary importance in Stage One; they are a sea of faces, without individuality and without needs. The teacher's attention is on herself, an acceptable motive being to complete the class hour without having to answer questions and without wanting to turn around and run. Growing professional experience is gained at student expense; damage done by commission or omission is never remedied except perhaps by fortunate accident.

2. Stage Two is also characterized by the inflexibility of inexperience. In spite of the possession of large amounts of knowledge, no vehicle exists through which it may be transmitted except the teacher's past experience as a student. The information is expressed in this fashion, being taught just as the teacher was herself taught, allowing for no change of method and for the inclusion of no personal or original interpretation. The teacher becomes the puppet of former masters, being incapable of generating freshness of approach because of the intimidating nature of her responsibility. Students are of secondary importance, being responded to as the teacher's model responded to her.

3. By trial and error, recovering from and learning from errors made at the expense of students, the teacher

gains personal presence and discovers a little of her selfness as it relates to teaching. She makes an effort to discover what the best method of teaching is, realizing eventually that it is a function of the person as well as the subject matter. Trial and error continues until the method fits the student as well as the teacher, the latter being difficult to recognize and accept. In Stage Three students are of primary importance, the pendulum having swung to the opposite end of its arc. Its balance has not yet been struck. Stage Three is deceptive. Students bask in the considerations and special attentions given them; they frequently exploit willingness to reconsider, to overlook, to retake examinations or rewrite papers. Sometimes they demand and are given a "gentleperson's D". Teachers, perhaps remembering with guilt their earlier neglect and rejection, are eager to please. They are proud to be responding to "student's need'" and sometimes look for ways of expanding their services.

4. Stage Four begins to appear as growth continues toward professional maturity. Stage Four sees the expression of mature professionalism when the teacher stops being concerned about Stages One, Two, and Three. She begins thinking and functioning in terms of what the students need as it is related to her individualism and ability to motivate them. She becomes empirically inductive rather than main-

taining and perpetuating earlier theoretical deductiveness, becomes reactive to student responsiveness and concerned about student apathy or restiveness when it appears. She becomes fluid in her ability to adapt, consistent in her perception of student feedback, and attentive to personal requirements as well.

A reasonable interpretation of these four stages might be this; that there are developmental principles which reflect a person's growth in whatever sphere that growth may occur. It begins with a period of groping, or discovering the nature of the rules, and what the tools are to make the rules function. Proceeding from the initial period is the expansion of perception to include the relationship to self, followed by the achievement of balance between self and responsibility to others. The presence of balance allows for the emergence of the self-assurance which enhances the skill, which in turn perpetuates and enriches the balance (Fields, 1981).

The verity of this profile of the first eight years of community college teaching is confirmed by my own experience and of those around me whose development I have closely observed for more than eight years. It is also my belief that because of the nature of Stage Four it is the time when the teacher begins to seek new personal enrichment and is ready and willing to utilize programs of personal development

when they come her way. It may even be that Stage Four characteristics are necessary for the person to be receptive and most able to utilize such a program.

The rewards to be found in work are either intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic satisfactions are found in the work itself; in its ability to satisfy one's self-esteem needs, relatedness, meaning and personal growth and fulfillment. When a worker finds a high level of these elements in her work she tends to work at the job longer than a required minimum. Extrinsic satisfactions are extraneous to the work itself and involve rewards such as money, fringe benefits, and working conditions (Coleman, 1974). Because the need for work fulfills needs on many levels as has been previously outlined, every job contains a mix of intrinsic and extrinsic rewards.

The satisfactions and rewards that attend the stages in Field's model begin with a mix that more heavily emphasizes the extrinsic. When one first starts work as a teacher there is relief with finding a job and the significance that society attributes to the role of teacher in our society. The emphasis shifts as the students' needs come closer to being at center stage of the teacher's attention and energy. The satisfactions then accrue from the feedback that the teacher is making a difference in the students' lives. As the teacher progresses into Stage Four of maturity and

balance between her personal needs and the students' need the reward structure also shifts to more of a balance in terms of her needs for extrinsic rewards as well as intrinsic ones.

Teaching, and especially college teaching has been credited by our society as a laudable activity. When the college teacher begins her career she rides on the combination of self-acclaim and societal acclaim but as the years go by the low salary that the Massachusetts Community College system has offered can become demoralizing and an impoverished extrinsic reward system can begin to cause the former intrinsic rewards to be questioned and weakened.

There are several other modern problems in the world of higher education in Massachusetts (and elsewhere) which contribute to diminishment of the traditional system of extrinsic rewards that formerly were available to faculty and professional staff. Colleges find themselves in competition for the diminishing numbers of traditional students who they are accustomed to serving. In general fewer and fewer teaching positions are open as colleges work to freeze or reduce the size of their faculty and staff in response to the smaller student body. (Some colleges have made a big push to reach out for the nontraditional student so that the size of their student body is not dropping off. This, however, is not a uniform development.) The result of combining this with the current economic woes and poor job market is that

the career mobility a faculty member once had has now been greatly diminished. There is very little opportunity to cross institutions even with more than necessary credentials and the opportunities for advancement within one's institution have traditionally been limited.

When the job market is tight people prolong their years of education to delay entering the job market and when they do they often find that either they are too well educated to be hired at entry level positions or are passed over in favor of a person who has both the academic credentials and job experience. These factors combine to cause society to lower the value it places on college education. When this happens the esteem in which society holds the teaching profession tends to be lowered as well. This leaves the community college faculty member with very little extrinsic reward structure from the moment he or she accepts the job. In effect he or she is accepting a position that by business world terms has a built-in dead end as soon as he or she "passes go".

Once a faculty member has reached Field's Stage Four, the burden of maintaining quality performance solely for intrinsic satisfaction becomes more and more difficult to sustain.

The Problem To Be Addressed

What can be done to aid community college faculty in avoiding the potential negative consequences of the position they find themselves in?

Because the turnover in teaching faculty is now greatly reduced and because teachers are staying in their position for lack of ability to move up or out, concern is growing over the potential effects this will have on the general quality of teaching by possibly dissatisfied and frustrated teachers.

In the March 24, 1982 issue of the The Chronicle of Higher Education is an article entitled "A New Academic Disease: Faculty 'Burnout'". While the title may denote a note of hysteria, the article is a report of a recently held conference for the purpose of highlighting the effects that the current state of higher education can have on faculty. "Burnout" is defined in this article as ". . . a sense of failure and despair . . . lack or significance in your work . . . becoming worn down . . . exhausted from demands on one's resources that can't be met." The conference, The Chronicle states, was held "so that administrators and faculty members could discuss burnout openly and see it as a phenomenon that they must deal with. In the course of the meeting, they began to develop some strategies for colleges and universities to deal with the causes and effects of the condition."

As a result of descriptive research conducted to examine this entity within the Massachusetts Community College system, Brookes (1980) and Fields (1981) have delineated several possible categories for teachers who have been

teaching for eight or more years. These yield the following concepts and categories describing teachers:

- - Generativity: a generative person is enthusiastic, involved, self-confident, responsive, adaptable and in motion.
- - Stuckness: the opposite of generativity. The state or condition of being immersed in private personal concerns without regard for the well-being of others. A condition characterized by lowered aspirations with its consequential poor role modeling for students, lowered self-esteem, less effective use of fewer skills, an unwillingness to take risks, feelings of futility, dependence on the peer group or outside sources of esteem.
- - Insulation: a condition of professional satisfaction without the dedication to teaching and students found in generative faculty, and without the feelings of stultification found in stuck faculty.
- - Burn-out: depletion of personal resourcefulness, flexibility and positive energy to the point that psychologically the person has no more to give, frustration due to prolonged stress.

A new voice is beginning to be heard in the realm of staff development calling for new programs that aid faculty and professional staff in maintaining personal vitality. In

the March 1982 Community and Junior College Journal there appeared an article entitled "Thank God Its Monday". An article by R. DeHart, a California Community College president, it strongly states that institutional vitality can no longer be maintained unless the "personal vitality" of the individual faculty and staff member is recognized as an important element for which the work environment is as much accountable as the individual himself. He says the key point is that motivation will be present to the extent that there is some return, some reward and some payoff. To be reinforcing the payoff must be compatible with a person's values, needs and goals. It is then that the individual wants to do more and gain more in ability. If the return doesn't meet the individual's criteria, then he or she "turns-off." In a turned-off condition, the individual's aptitude, knowledge and ability are never ignited to create vitality."

DeHart uses "vitality" as a synonym for Fields and Brookes use of generativity as a quality of prime importance to be maintained, the key to which, he says, is life balance.

He offers the following guidelines which he considers to be necessary in maintaing vitality within a professional work force.

1. The various segments of life must be kept in balance. Events in our lives, especially crises, will create expansion of one activity at the expense of others, but a

balance is something to be sought after consistently.

2. The return for various activities should be related to the size of the energy expended. If a large part of a person's life space is taken up by work, then there needs to be commensurate pay for that investment. If that is not the case, then vitality will drop, or work energy will be redefined, or serious health problems will be incurred by the individual.

3. If a match between the energy invested in a life segment and the payback received cannot be achieved, a person must be prepared to change that investment or suffer the consequence. This may result in a new job, a new marriage, returning to school, or any number of possibilities.

4. Organizations, in seeking to maintain vitality in the workplace, must not only provide a good working environment but must also take into account other segments of an employee's life that impinge so heavily on the vitality of the work.

To summarize the problem being addressed here, I would once more like to quote Mr. DeHart.

The fostering of growth and vitality in the staff is not an act of management "do-goodism". It is an act of long-term wisdom. The most valuable asset that a college has appears on no balance sheet, is not measured in dollars. In fact, it has never been realistically measured because lip service is paid without recognition of it as an asset. That asset is the human resources of our organizations. It surely follows then

that when better ways are sought to measure its value and to preserve and enhance it as an asset, vitality in human resources will cause vitality in the colleges. If the right environment can be created and preserved, the end result will be more satisfying and fuller lives, fewer frustrations and reprisals, better institutions, and greater contribution toward achieving a healthy society.

The Project

Using the above guidelines as inspiration I designed and executed a workshop model to aid community college faculty and professional staff in maintaining personal vitality and avoiding the onset of the symptoms attendant to stuckness and insulation.

This project is built on the the following assumptions.

1. To experience job and personal satisfaction a faculty member needs to feel he or she is in control of the consequences of his/her actions, i.e. have an internally oriented locus of control.
2. Vitality, generativity and a commitment to teaching excellence is related to the faculty member's level of job satisfaction.
3. A lowering of job satisfaction and generativity of faculty and professional staff can be tied to an increase in the perception of stress and a lessening of their perceived ability to be effective.

The hypothesis on which this project is based is, therefore: faculty and professional staff who operated with

an internal locus of control will utilize stress management techniques to decrease their perceived stress and maintain or increase satisfaction with job and personal life.

Definitions. The term faculty refers to the teachers employed by the Massachusetts Community College System.

Professional staff refers to the personnel in the Massachusetts Community Colleges who work directly with students but who are not teachers and are not in administrative positions, e.g. counseling staff.

Locus of control is derived from Rotter's theory of social learning which states that rewarding a behavior strengthens an expectancy that the behavior will produce future rewards. Locus of control refers to the orientation of the person as to whether he perceives himself to be in control of the consequences of his actions (internal) or conversely the consequences of his actions accrue to others or to chance (external).

Stress refers to the consequences of excessive strain and a perceived inability to cope with the sources of the strain.

Importance of this project. As most staff development programs that I am aware of within the community college system address teaching techniques and their improvement, there is a lack of programming to address needs for personal development outside the realm of the classroom.

A program of this sort would not depend on any system of external reward for participation. Because participants are encouraged to put their jobs into a balanced perspective by broadening their horizons of personal satisfaction in life they are encouraged to become more self-sufficient in their ability to find rewards from many different environments. This therefore could reduce their focus on the limited external reward system that community college service (in Massachusetts) can offer.

A project such as this could provide a low-cost, readily available, and sbort-term resource to build faculty morale. Delimitations. This pilot project was limited to the teachers and professional staff of one community college in the Massachusetts system.

Since a person must perceive stress in order to utilize stress management techniques, participation in the workshop was voluntary. The participants who volunteered in response to an announcement were the subjects of this study. While others may have felt stressed if they don't believe that their behavioral consequences are within their control they won't believe in their ability to effect stress management.

While having a control group would be desireable, establishing it was out of reach because of the necessity of getting people (who don't volunteer for the workshops) to identify themselves and to report a perception of stress of

an equal level to each person who does volunteer to participate. There is not a feasible way of matching personal characteristics.

This study demonstrates the possible effectiveness of stress management techniques in allowing community college faculty and professional staff to experience a greater sense of control over their lives and therefore to increase their job and personal satisfaction.

To measure their perceived level of stress at the inception of the workshops four questionnaires were administered. Three of these relate to different aspects of stress perception and the fourth measures their belief in the amount of control they have over events in their lives (Rotter's Internal - External Locus of Control Scale).

The workshop presented the participants with a series of information sessions accompanied by exercises to teach and illustrate the skills for management attendant to each. These sessions focus on values clarification, life-planning, stress management and time management. The participants were encouraged to present the results of each exercise/skill learned to another participant or to the group for feedback and suggestions.

The same three stress questionnaires were administered subsequent to the workshop as the post-tests. This was to provide data, in comparison to the original scores' to

determine changes in amounts of perceived stress and personal control.

The study is based on the belief that if a person believes himself to have control over his sources of stress and the effects that he will be able to increase (or maintain) job and personal satisfaction with his life.

I turn now to a survey of relevant literature to explicate the history, consequences, and treatment of stress; and the relationship of locus of control to job satisfaction.

C H A P T E R I I

LITERATURE REVIEW

Stress and its Implications

Since the late 1940's and early 1950's the concept of stress as applied to human beings; its definitions and consequences, has been doggedly pursued by researchers. The compilation of this research as we assemble it in 1983 appears to be balanced and by compiling it the practical implications become apparent.

Definitions. Stress, as a term, has been adopted from the world of physics and refers to any strain, pressure, or force applied to a system (Everly and Rosenfeld, 1981). This would apply in the world of engineering and be described by Hooke's Law of Elasticity. This law refers to how metals are deformed by excessive pressure. The definition of Hooke's Law is that if the strain produced by a given stress falls within the "elastic limit" of the material, when the stress is removed the material will return to its original condition. If the strain passes beyond the elastic limit then some permanent damage will result (Cox, 1978).

The term stress, popularized by Hans Selye beginning in 1946, refers to the somatic and psychological consequences of excessive strain on the body. The term for the sources of

that strain is "stressor." Further, Selye separates stressors into distress and eustress (Selye, 1974). Distress, as it is most commonly used, refers to deleterious stimuli that require coping behavior from the organism. Eustress on the other hand refers to positive arousal which the organism utilizes as a motivating force and the required coping behavior is converted to behavior aimed at improving the quality of life (Everly and Rosenfeld, 1981). Even with eustress, however, "too much of a good thing" can tax the organism's coping and adaptation ability to a breaking point so that the organism is once more suffering.

Origins of stress - psychological. It is recognized that stressors have their source in any part of a person's life. Lazarus (1966, 1977) has continually alerted our attention to the fact that it is the person's interpretation of the stimuli that allows it to be identified as a stressor. A stimulus that provokes a stress response in one person might be totally passed over by another. This concept of cognitive appraisal (Lazarus, 1977) reflects the theories of emotion put forth by W.B. Cannon in 1914 and modified later by Stanley Schacter (1964) which clarifies that our experience of emotion, while producing like and standard somatic responses, will be labeled by us depending on our interpretation of the setting in which the emotional response takes

place. In other words our bodily response to stimuli at a funeral and at a wedding follow along the same continuum of somatic response. That we identify the emotion felt in one instance as sorrow and in the other as joy is a consequence of the milieu in which we find ourselves. This accounts for the individual interpretation of the same stimuli bringing distress to some, eustress to another, and no response to someone else.

Stressors originate from a variety of situations, The following categories, listed by Charlesworth and Nathan (1982) illustrate the possibilities:

1. Emotional stressors - these include the fears and anxieties with which we (individually) struggle. These include the evaluation of our performance at a task or that of someone else, the anxiety of unpaid bills, social status and many other things. Each individual has a unique set of emotional stressors.
2. Family stressors - include interaction with family members which is not always smooth. The structure of family life is undergoing what in some cases is dramatic change, especially by comparison to even twenty years ago. Families encounter various stages of stress some of which include: birth of a child, divorce, death, teenage adjustments, adapting to aging parents or grandparents, etc.

3. Social stressors - interactions with individuals or groups. Evaluating and striving for a place in the social order, both among specific friends and within a wider community can, depending on a person's skill at adaptation and adjustment, be stressful.

4. Chemical stressors - refers to any consumed drugs whether used or abused. Chemical additives, caffeine, nicotine and alcohol are all common in daily life. In addition to these, most of which a person chooses to consume are the chemicals present in the environment, the absorption of which is comparatively difficult to control. An example of this would be air pollution and noxious fumes or chemicals in water systems and foods.

Chemical stressors can produce physiological effects, the symptoms of which are akin to anxiety and nervousness (Everly and Rosenfeld, 1981). When a person identifies these symptoms but does not know their origin he often looks for an emotional stressor as the cause and can convince himself of its destructive or negative attributes. This can lead to a vicious circle revolving around the toxic effect of the chemical substance.

5. Work stressors - tensions and pressures originating in the work place. Once again it is not automatic as to what elements of what jobs are the stressful ones; it is open to individual interpretation. Pressures such as deadlines are

exhilarating to some people and to others are the straws that break the ability to be elastic.

The National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health compiled a list of the twelve occupations most susceptible to stress-related diseases. The one element that they seem to have in common relates to scheduling i.e. the person can not operate at a pace suitable to his nature or personality but instead is locked into the work and production schedules that are out of his direct control and especially not within his/her perception of control.

Charlesworth and Nathan are also careful to note that the changing nature of the world of work is also producing potential stressors that did not used to exist. These items include: an expanding managerial structure that puts the employee further out of contact with his "real" boss (this makes it difficult to negotiate the workers needs juxtaposed to the business's needs); as the white collar work force continues to increase there are fewer people who can actually tie their work and productivity to an end product; economic and family issues such as child care also put pressure on the worker.

6. Commuting stressors - elements present in transportation to and from the work place. The physical and emotional strain present in most commuter environments requires coping

and adaptation skills in order for them not to be translated into destructive stress.

7. Phobic stressors - exaggerated fears of certain situations including animals, places and objects. Even though the person can say these situations pose no immediate danger they have formed an habitual response to the stimuli which evokes fight or flight responses.

8. Physical stressors - demands that change the state of our bodies. Physical stressors include strain from over exertion, lack of sleep, poor nutrition, injury, pregnancy, menstrual difficulties, etc. This necessarily includes an abrupt change from too much to too little activity.

9. Disease stressors - result of long- or short-term physical disorder. Short-term disease stressors tax us on an immediate, but time-limited basis. Long-term physical disorders e.g. chronic disease requires sustained coping skills.

The onset of disease can be heavily influenced by stress as well as stress aggravating an already present disease state. This will be reviewed in an upcoming section.

10. Pain stressors - aches and pains resulting from injury (new and old), accidents or disease. The stress a person encounters in trying to cope with pain often cyclically brings about a further aggravation of the condition producing more pain and consequently more stress.

11. Environmental stressors - aspects of our surroundings which are often unavoidable. This for example can include unavoidable loud and/or distracting noise, exhaust fumes, sun's glare, too much or too little heat and light. These factors can be stressful because of insufficiency as well as overabundance. In an effort to filter out a noise level that is too high we may have to concentrate so greatly that we are distracted from the task at hand. Many people also find an environment with no noise too distracting to concentrate. Too much heat or cold has an even more overtly profound effect on people's ability to concentrate requiring adaptive behavior which supercedes any other pursuit.

12. Change stressors - pressure to adapt when something important is altered in our lives. There is an individually determined optimal level of change and variety beyond which the organism's ability to adjust is taxed to the breaking point.

This type of stressor can be found both as distress and eustress. Leaving a job, buying a house, getting married, relief from pain, new lifestyle can all provide change stress.

Lazarus notes: ". . . expectations about his power to deal with the environment and master danger are a factor in determining whether the person will feel threatened or challenged by what happens." He further states that "people

select the environments to which they must respond; they shape their commerce with it, plan, chose, avoid, tolerate, postpone, escape, demolish, manipulate their attention, and also deceive themselves about what is happening, as much as possible casting the relationship in ways that fit their needs and premise about themselves in the world." (Lazarus; 1977, 149.)

Cooper and Marshall (1980) contribute to this theme by saying that ". . . failure to deal with one source of stress may quickly lower one's ability to tolerate another source of stress."

Response patterns can become habitual just as any other stimulus-response pattern can. Ineffective behavioral responses to stress can be unlearned and effective ones can be learned in their place. (Charlesworth and Nathan, 1982; Everly and Rosenfeld, 1981; Cox, 1978; Benson, 1974, Selye, 1966).

Physiological stress and its consequences. The amount of importance an event has on our lives is directly proportional to the amount of stress induced by the changes the event causes (Charlesworth and Nathan, 1982).

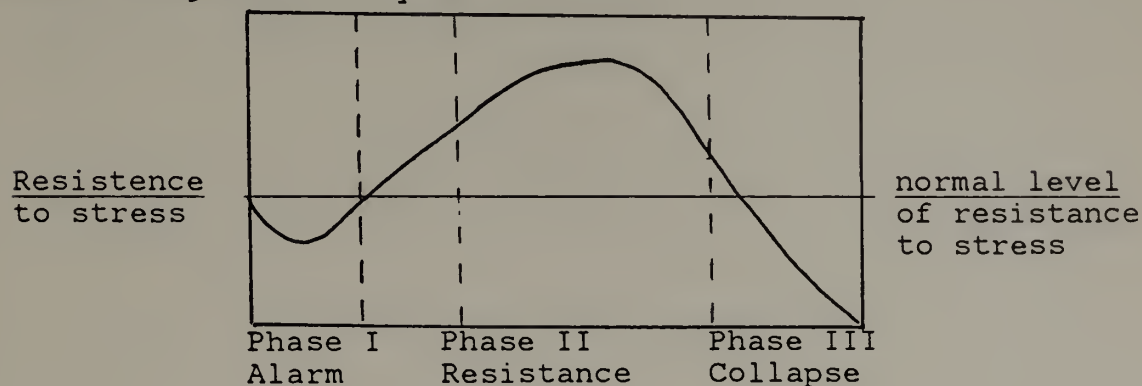
Stress intertwines psychology and physiology and the effects on one are not without attendant effects on the other.

The form and shape of stress on physiology has undergone continuing research and our understanding of it is being continually reshaped. With the research summaries published in the last two years there is evidence that we have come a long way in identifying biological consequences since Selye's initial research in 1946. While his description of the generalized physiological response (the General Adaptation Syndrome) is still in use to describe the overall response of animals and people to stressors, we are now beginning to benefit from research into the specific physiology of stress in humans.

The General Adaptation Syndrome as Selye (1936) describes it, is the triphasic biological adaptation to stress. The three stages are 1) the alarm reaction, 2) the stage of resistance, 3) the stage of exhaustion. Cox (1979) summarizes it this way:

During the first phase the body shows the changes characteristic of initial exposure to the stressor, and at the same time its level of resistance is reduced. If the stressor is sufficiently severe, resistance may collapse and death results. The second stage, that of resistance, ensues if continued exposure to the stressor is compatible with adaption. The bodily changes characteristic of the alarm reaction disappear and are replaced by the changes marking the person's (or animal's) adaptation to the situation. Resistance rises

above normal. The final stage, in all senses of the word, is that of exhaustion. Following long-term exposure to the same stressor, and one to which the body has adapted, the necessary energy for adaptation may be exhausted, and final collapse occurs. The signs of the alarm reaction reappear as the person (or animal) dies. The general adaptation syndrome is shown diagrammatically as follows.



Selye set the stage for research into the nature of the body's reaction to stress on the understanding that this reaction is generalized to all stressful situations regardless of their origin. This is beginning to come into question as some researchers have begun to devise methods of testing this idea under a variety of circumstances. As Cox notes "In concentrating his attention on the body's physiological response to stressor agents, he ignored the role of psychological processes. It is now suggested that much of the physiological response is not directly determined by the actual presence of the stressor agent but by its psychological impact on the person." (Cox, 1978, 13)

Just prior to the time that Hans Selye was putting together the parts of the General Adaptation Syndrome Water Cannon described "homeostasis" (1932). This is the word he gave to describe the effort of the physiological systems within the body to actively maintain a level of functioning, within the limits of tolerance of the system, in the face of ever changing conditions. Homeostasis is the adaptational effort of the body to stay in balance (Everly and Rosenfeld, 1981).

From here Cannon went on to research what he called the "fight or flight" response and defined it as the mobilization of the body to prepare for muscular activity in response to a perceived threat. This mechanism allows the organism either to fight or to flee from the perceived threat (Cannon, 1953). This involves responses of the autonomic nervous system; initially the responses of the sympathetic division. Some of these responses, as summarized by Charlesworth, et. al., (1982) are: 1) digestion slows so that blood may be directed to the muscles and the brain. It is more functional in the face of danger to be alert and strong than to digest food. This is the cause for feeling "butterflies" in your stomach. 2) Breathing gets faster to supply oxygen for muscles. This translates to feeling out of breath after being frightened. 3) The heart speeds up and blood pressure soars. This forces blood to parts of the body that need it. This might cause

someone to be aware of his heart pounding. 4) Perspiration increases to cool the body. This allows the body to burn more energy, 5) Muscles tense in preparation for important action. This might result in a stiff neck or back, for example, after a stressful day. 6) Chemicals are released so that the blood clots more rapidly. If injured, this can reduce blood loss. Under this condition someone could notice rapid healing of a cut or wound. 7) Sugars and fats are released into the blood for quick energy. Noticeable increases in strength and endurance are present in an emergency.

The actions of the parasympathetic nervous system are designed to calm the body down and to make it possible to return to homeostasis. For the parasympathetic to be signalled to begin the person must have responded to the need for action and therefore terminated the perception of threat. Unfortunately in our modern life style the threat is often vague and our ability to carry through the action that the body is set for is not always within the bounds of social acceptability. This causes the body to continue to produce the chemical state necessary to combat threat but with no release of that body preparedness a return to a repair and resting state does not occur. The result of a continual state of preparation is that the body becomes depleted in its reserves and ability to respond and as a consequence lean body tissue is being broken down, (not what is commonly

thought of as "fat") a function of the increased secretion of the hormone cortisol, and fats are continually being released into the blood stream which when gone unused begin to collect and block the heart's valves and arteries.

It is presumed by all researchers that our bodies were set up this way to be appropriate to conditions that existed for our cavemen ancestors and that our bodies have not adapted to current environment in this area just as our spines are not totally adapted to our current posture. In other words modern man has the automatic stress responses that the cavemen used for dangerous situations but present man seldom finds himself in a position to fight or flee, instead when he is threatened, he braces himself and then works to contain his nervous reactions (Selye, 1974, Cox 1978, Everly and Rosenfeld, 1981, Charlesworth and Nathan, 1982).

It is necessary to note that physical stress has a different physiological response than does emotional stress (thinking about what has happened or might happen). Physical stress is the response, aside from the thought process, to taxing physical involvement, including exercise. From the study of exercise physiology scientists have been able to document the differences in the effects of emotional versus physical stress on the body.

One of the ways to illustrate the differences is by reviewing the hormones released during the stress response. Three of them are norepinephrine, epinephrine (adrenalin) and cortisol. In response to a physical stressor there is an increased secretion of norepinephrine and a small amount of epinephrine. In response to psychological stressors there is an increase in secretion of cortisol. Norepinephrine works to increase the heart rate and blood pressure. Epinephrine's effect is to release stored sugar. These two set the stage for physical activity.

Cortisol, while aiding in preparation for vigorous activity also breaks down lean tissue for conversion to sugar as an additional source of energy. Cortisol also: blocks removal of certain acids from the bloodstream; raises levels of fatty acids in the blood; increases gastric acidity and as a result of elevated levels of cortisol over a long period of time, ulcerations in the stomach lining are produced (Charlesworth and Nathan, 1982).

The relationship of stress to disease. Based on physicians reports, it is estimated by Charlesworth and Nathan that up to seventy-five percent of all visits to physicians are made by people with stress related disorders (Charlesworth and Nathan, 1982 8.)

Stress can not be examined from the physiological perspective without considering its psychological moderators and modifiers and likewise examining the psychological aspects of stress is useless without considering the physiological involvement and impact. Whether stress causes disease or can only be said to be influential in affecting disease is still being actively researched and discussed. While reserchers still dispute whether stress alone can cause a disease they all agree that it is influential in the onset and duration of disease. The term "psychosomatic" is most appropriately used in this context as it implies an unseparable involvement of physical pathology and psychology regardless of which came first. In relation to the hormonal secretion disorder such as hypertension, coronary heart disease, migraine and tension headaches, ulcers, and asthmatic conditions are commonly accepted to be linked to stress.

Everly and Rosenfeld (1981) present two models which have been advanced to explain the factors to be considered in connecting stress with end-organ (the organ in which disease results, e,g. gastrointestinal tract, skin, heart, etc.) pathology. They are Lachman's 1972 model which takes note of the following;

- 1) Genetic factors which biologically predispose the organ to harm from psychological arousal.
- 2) Environmental factors which predispose the organism to harm from psychophysio-

logical arousal. These include such things as nutritional influences, physical trauma influences, etc.

3) The specific structures involved in the physiological response, defined in terms of intensity, frequency and duration of involvement of the organ.

And Sternbach's 1966 model:

1) Response stereotypy, which may be thought of as a form of "weak-link" or "weak-organ" theory of psychosomatic disease which means that the organ to be most heavily effected or involved in a stress response will be the weakest or least disease resistant. As a result of individual differences this implies that the end-organ would not necessarily be the same for two people.

2) The organ must be involved in frequent activation to be affected.

3) Homeostatic mechanisms of the body must fail to return the body to baseline level of activity. The stress-response organ must be slow to return to normal.

Personality factors as they determine a person's characteristic response pattern when exposed to potentially stressful situations is particularly well illustrated by the work of Friedman and Rosenman (1974). As doctors specializing in heart disease they observed and reported that most of the patients they observed and interviewed fell into one of two personality types. "Type A" as they call one is directly related to coronary heart disease. They define "type A" as:

. . . an action-emotion complex that can be observed in any person who is aggressively involved in chronic, incessant

struggle to achieve more and more in less and less time, and is required to do so; against opposing efforts of other things or other persons. It is not psychosis or a complex of worries or fears or phobias or obsessions, but a socially acceptable - indeed often praised - form of conflict. Persons possessing this pattern also are quite prone to exhibit a free-floating but extra-ordinarily well-rationalized hostility . . . there are degrees in the intensity of this behavior pattern . . . for Type A Behavior pattern to explode into being, the environmental challenge must serve as a fuse for this explosion.

Type B Behavior Pattern is cited as the exact opposite. His ambition to achieve may be as great as that of the Type A person but it does not drive him to a frenetic pace. His personality is steady confident and secure and does not fall victim to constantly speeding up his activities in order to accomplish more and more.

Friedman and Rosenman found that approximately fifty percent of the individuals they interviewed exhibited Type A Behavior Pattern, forty percent were Type B and ten percent have mixed characteristics. They did not find that Type A Behavior Pattern fell to any one socio-economic group or job classification or position. They have linked heart disease directly with Type A Behavior Pattern.

It is also important to include a summary of the work of Richard Rahe and his associates who have tried to discern potential links between the stress brought on by change and major life events and its relationship to disease. The

research that preceded this point in his research had worked to establish links between major life events (producing change in life style) and the onset of illness. In the Rahe and Arthur study reported in 1968, the subject under examination was life-change patterns which occurred before, during and after an illness episode. Recent life-change patterns in persons who reported recent illness were compared to life-change patterns for individuals who had similar backgrounds but who had not reported similar illness episodes.

To measure this Rahe used a questionnaire he had designed that listed the most common life-change events and each had an assigned numerical value related to the amount of adjustment that each event required (based on prior interview research). A baseline of eighty Life-change Units, as they are called, was established to be the baseline over a six-month period as a result of the reports of the three thousand Navy personnel respondents.

Rahe and Arthur (1968) report their results this way:

Life change data seen prior to illness experience confirmed previous work done on life stress build-up prior to illness onset. A new and important finding was that life-change data seen following illness experience was reversed and nearly symmetrical picture of its counterpart prior to illness.

This research draws together both the research documenting a correlation between life-change events and illness

occurring after the event as well as demonstrating that life change events can be documented to take place during and after illness as well.

Stress management and treatment. As all of the material reported here has shown, the stress response involves both mind and body. No treatment mode, to be successful, can deal with only one aspect of the duality.

Everly and Rosenfeld (1981) have outlined a preliminary set of holistic principles for clinical intervention in the problem of excessive stress. They are as follows:

1. Mind and body are inseparably interrelated.
2. Stress should be viewed from a holistic perspective, that is, stress should be viewed as a function of interrelating subsystems, for example, cognitive processes, affective processes, environmental factors, psychophysiological processes, behavioral processes, etcetera.
3. Diagnostic procedures should follow holistic principles if possible. This means that the diagnostic assessment of excessive stress should focus not only on singular subsystems, but also on the synergistic role that any subsystem plays in the functioning of the suprasystem.
4. Given the interrelating subsystems that define human stress, holistic treatment should simultaneously attend to more than one of the subsystems.

5. Holistic treatment recognizes and addresses the role that individual client differences play as a moderating variable in the treatment outcome. The treatment of excessive stress via the holistic model attempts to answer the question of what therapy interventions are most effective for this individual client at this particular time.

6. The noncritical emphasis on client self-responsibility is a major thrust in the holistic treatment of the stress response. A heavy emphasis is placed on the client's accepting responsibility for the creation as well as the alleviation/control of stress in his or her life. This is done with the initial support and general facilitation of the clinician.

7. The ultimate goal of the holistic treatment model is to foster appropriate client independence in the management of excessive stress. Because by far the greater proportion of the stress that one suffers from is self-initiated and self-propagated, successful treatment of the stress response becomes inherently linked to having the client accept responsibility and gain appropriate functional independence from the clinician.

The two modes available to the person in terms of taking responsibility for treating and coping with stress are direct-action (dealing directly with the sources of stress to

change them) and palliation (dealing with the experience of being stressed) (Kyriacou, 1980).

Some of the modes available for direct-action are: alteration of the environment, restructuring life-style, exercise, avoidance and defense mechanisms. The lasting effect of the particular strategy determines its value as a course of action. Alteration of the environment, while very useful and beneficial is rarely possible because few people are in positions where they are solely responsible for the elements included. Restructuring the life-style is very constructive in managing stress. A person would need some guidance to break out of the old life-style habits, especially the stressful ones, because like other habits the individual becomes blind to the alternatives. Time management training for the purpose of putting work life into a healthful perspective with other parts of one's life allows people to continue to achieve occupational goals and at the same time achieve in other aspects of their lives consequently producing overall well-being and satisfaction (Lakein, 1973).

For palliation a number of related approaches have been developed which have in common the training of the intrapsychic process by which to influence the somatic process.

Herbert Benson M.D., in 1974, had an impact on the business world with the publication of an article that summed up his examination of all the techniques for producing

relaxation within the body thus countering the body's physiologic response to stress. He introduces the concept this way:

. . . there is a simple way for the individual to alleviate stress and thus moderate or control many of its undesirable effects - effects which may range from simple anxiety to heart disease. The "relaxation response", an integrated physiologic response, appears to counteract the harmful physiologic effect of stress. It can be elicited by simple mental technique (p.52) . . . The relaxation response is an innate, integrated set of physiologic changes opposite to those of the fight - or - flight response . . . results in physiologic changes that are consistent with generalized decreased sympathetic nervous system activity . . . There is a simultaneous decrease in the body's metabolism, in heart rate, and in rate of breathing. These changes are distinctly different from the physiologic changes noted during quiet sitting or sleep. (p 52)

While several variations of the relaxation response have emerged (Charlesworth and Nathan, 1982), the basic ingredients are the same: a quiet environment, a mental device, a passive attitude and a comfortable position, before starting a planned relaxation that is aimed at relaxing all of the muscles from head to toe.

Stress and the teaching profession. While reports and articles have been written concerning the stress that teachers currently experience, very few relate to college teaching and

none (apparently) to two year and community colleges. It is inappropriate to use grade school teaching reports because the sources of stress cited are not analagous to college teaching.

The elements that bring about stress for the grade school teacher are cited again and again as things like overcrowded classrooms, discipline difficulties, too much paper work, etc. These concerns are outside of the community college teacher's concerns and can not be directly related (Phillips and Lee, 1980).

In all of my search of the literature, including computer assisted, I could only find one article that reported on a connection of stress as it relates to career vitalization among professors. This is a model conceptualizing that the faculty' perceived causes, or attributions, are directly related to stress. Bumpus goes on to conclude that understanding satisfaction and stress in terms of various career stages is important to dealing with low vitality, as are institutional personnel policies and professional development opportunities.

Literature discussing "burnout" in all professions is burgeoning. "Burnout" comes to be defined in many ways; each author taking a different approach to defining and listing characteristics often based on individual occupational situations. As people begin to describe "burnout" in its

application to the teaching profession some central issues are cited such as poor pay; increasing domination of discipline problems; increase in volume of paperwork and record-keeping tasks; lack of influence and control of curriculum; and class size and lack of job mobility, to name a few. The common thread that runs through this literature centers on the issue of control. The more a person feels that control of the facets of his job are being taken away the more powerless he feels himself becoming. There is a direct link between motivation to do well and the amount of control a person perceives he or she has over the consequences of his/her behavior. If a person is engaged in a struggle to find reasons to maintain morale he will feel himself losing ("burning out") if he is dependent on external sources of reward and finds that his ability to influence those sources of reward diminishes daily. The contrast is a person who creates the primary sources of reward internally and is not, therefore, as dependent on the outside world (job) to provide those rewards.

The ensuing section reviews literature that pertains to the idea of control and whether for the individual it is centered outside or within himself.

Internal - External Locus of Control

The world of psychology from which the concepts about internal versus external locus of control evolved is well summarized by Strickland (1977):

. . . the sixties gave rise to an increasing debate between the "trait" psychologists and the "situationalist". The first group was composed of researchers who believed that certain, somewhat enduring, characteristics of persons could be identified and would provide explanation of how it is that people come to behave as they do. The latter group argued that personality variables were notoriously poor predictors because situational determinants override whatever fragile personality traits people carry with them. Throughout the debate, however, a number of investigators continued to look at individual belief systems, recognizing the importance of situational determinants, but still convinced that a person's expectancies about oneself in relation to one's world are important in influencing that individual's behavior. One expectancy variable that has had increasing impact on psychological experimentation has been the internal versus external control of reinforcement dimension (I-E). Simply stated, I-E refers to the degree to which an individual perceives that the events that happen to him are dependent on his or her own behavior or are the result of fate, luck, chance, or powers beyond one's control and understanding. (p.220-1)

Lefcourt (1966) who has continuously reviewed and reported on the broad spectrum of research in this area commented in 1966 that "personal control is a useful variable, and, in relation to the types of experiments noted . . . may be

related to problems such as psychopathology, apathy and withdrawal phenomena." He continues on to review all of the types of measures that have been tried in measuring perceived control and concludes with a note that little relationship has been found between perceived control and intelligence.

Rotter (1966) meanwhile had concluded that there was distinct value in studying goal directed behavior of this sort but felt that the then modes of research were producing hit-or-miss results because of inadequate conceptualization of the problem (Rotter, 1960). He then proffered a theory of social learning to fill the need for a satisfactory theory of goal directed behavior as a primary prerequisite for developing adequate tests (Rotter, 1960). His social learning theory extends behavioral models of learning because he believes that behavior followed by reward is enough to get an animal to repeat a behavior but the formula is too simplistic to account for human behavior. He believes that the important factors in learning were not only the strength and frequency of the reward and punishment but also whether or not the person believed that his or her behavior produced the consequence (Rotter, 1971). His theory of social learning is then, briefly, that rewarding a behavior strengthens an expectancy that the behavior will produce future rewards. He further explains the notion of internal versus external locus of control this way:

When a reinforcement is perceived by the subject as following some action of his own but not being entirely contingent upon his action, then, in our culture, it is typically perceived as the result of luck, chance, fate, as under the control of powerful other, or as unpredictable because of the great complexity of the forces surrounding him. When the event is interpreted in this way by an individual, we have labeled this a belief in external control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own behavior or his relatively permanent characteristics, we have termed this a belief in internal control. (Rotter, 1966, p.1)

Based on this he formulated a forced choice scale that determines a person's orientation as being internal or external by asking him to choose one each of twenty-nine statement pairs. One of the pair reflects an internal orientation, the other external.

Rotter's scale continues to be used as the generalized measure for adults and on that basis I offer notes on the following studies and reports which are relevant to my application of Rotter's work.

Crowne, Liverant, and Shephard (1963), using a group of measures including Rotter's I-E Scale (then in press) studied the proposition that conformity is related to low expectations of success in socially evaluative situations and is consequently accompanied by defensive processes. Their results implied that "the conformer can be conceptualized as an individual who has a high need for approval and affection from others,

but relatively low expectancies that these much desired reinforcements can be obtained as a result of his own abilities and efforts. His low evaluation of himself and his fear of social rejection result in strong disposition to conform".

Strickland and Haley (1980) were concerned with possible differences in the responses of male and female subjects to Rotter's I-E Scale. Their results were obtained by factor and item analyzing matched responses of 200 male and 200 female students. Significant sex differences were found on eight of 23 keyed items. Overall however they report:

. . . the surprising result was that males and females are expressing personal control expectancies on different items and in different ways. Although the influence of luck and chance is mentioned by both sexes, males appear to relate leadership and personal influence in a more systematic way than do females. The items that cluster for females on this factor have to do with planning ahead and personal destiny. It appears that aspect of the personal control factor for males are related to influencing others and for females have to do with self-direction and future orientation. (p.937)

Locus of Control and Job Satisfaction. A search was instituted for all reports and review that connect locus of control with job satisfaction published since the publication of Rotter's I-E Scale. With computer assistance a total of one hundred and four articles were found and examined. Of that number only three were found to relate to college concerns. From

here I will proceed to cite and briefly annotate those whose findings have some bearing on my research.

Robert Cares (1976) studied self-actualization attitudes of faculty and their perceptions of their career success. Studying a sample of 7,534 white male professors he researched the relationship of faculty career success and satisfaction perceptions. He reports that the central idea which the study supports is that faculty do not want to be controlled or managed. The degree of personal control of the environment related most significantly to faculty perceptions of success. This causes Cares to suggest that college and universities make full growth and development of human resources both a major goal and integral part of their processes and to make efforts to increase the kind of end control which faculty have over their environment.

John Morris (1973) studied faculty of nine private liberal arts colleges to determine the relationship of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction to 1) amount of personal involvement in the work content, and 2) elements related to the content under which the work is performed. Using the I-E scale and measures of job satisfaction he reports results that indicate that the faculty members reasons for being satisfied in their work are related to factors intrinsic to the work process and that lack of job dissatisfaction for reasons which are extrinsic to the work process.

Martha Anderson (1977) compared locus of control with the sense of life and personal satisfaction and self-concept of graduate students and teachers. Her results showed a strong correlation between internal locus of control and life satisfaction (which includes health, satisfying significant relationships and work).

Einstein (1981) surveyed attitudes of business employees with regard to their sense of satisfaction with a performance appraisal system. He found that people who have a built-in feeling of ability to influence the consequences of their own behavior are pleased by a reward received as a result of performance appraisal. People who have low feelings of personal power evaluate the whole performance appraisal system as lousy.

On the other hand, Knold (1981) found no significant relationship of internal locus of control and job satisfactions to the willingness and interest of industrial education teachers to seek in-service enrichment and training programs.

When Tabatabai (1981) compared measures of job satisfaction and locus of control of 105 public and private sector employees he found a significant relationship between high job satisfaction and internal locus of control. He also found that private sector employees tended to be more internal than the public.

Knoop (1981) administered the I-E Scale and several work-outcome measures to 1,812 teachers. Results show that internally scoring respondents perceived their jobs to be more enriched and held more positive attitudes than externally scoring subjects. Likewise when Dailey (1980) administered similar measures (including the I-E Scale) to 281 research project leaders he also found that subjects with greater internal orientation perceived greater job involvement, satisfaction, motivation, psychological growth satisfaction than did those with an greater external orientation.

The results of the same type of testing of 84 male 26-32 year old engineers are reported by Sharma et al. (1980) to confirm once again that subjects who believe they can influence their environment to a greater degree may be more likely to perceive job satisfaction.

In the Journal of Vocations Behavior, Hammer (1981) reports results of his examination of the effects of locus of control on career self management and career experiences of 562 nonsupervisory workers. In organizational settings that encouraged personal initiative in career development through personnel policies and promotion practices, internals played a more active role in their career progress than externals by initiating their own job searches, and they had more favorable career experiences.

Kimmons (1976) performed a study to determine whether employees' locus of control moderated the relationship

between work characteristics (autonomy, feedback, performance-reward connections, and job involvement) and job satisfaction. One hundred and ninety three managers in a large utility company completed the I-E Scale and a job-dimensions checklist. Internals perceived more autonomy, feedback and performance reward connections on their jobs than externals. Internals were more involved and satisfied with their jobs than were externals.

Gemmill (1972) reports that his study with managers produced results that indicate that for these subjects the greater the belief in internal control (the ability to influence the environment), the lower is the reported job strain and the higher the job satisfaction and positional mobility.

The results of the studies in this sampling of literature relating to locus of control to the levels of job satisfaction found in many work environments are representative of the reports of studies that do not relate as directly. That literature reports overwhelming support for a positive correlation between having an internal locus of control and being satisfied with one's job.

From this review a connection can perhaps be extrapolated linking locus of control to perceived stress and to levels of professional development. A person who believes that he or she can influence or control the consequences of his or her

behavior may also believe that satisfaction with life and work is within his power to achieve and indeed is his responsibility. A person of this kind would give evidence of being securely within internal locus of control framework. An "external" person would believe that either it is up to the job environment to provide status and satisfaction and if it is not present then "it is out of his hands", implying the idea that he is a victim of circumstances.

Developmentally the professional who is desirous of attaining job satisfaction is at a turning point. The job can no longer provide the excitement and growth potential that it once had. He then has to decide whether he is committed to the job and needs to expand on the areas and improve his skills in attaining life satisfaction or perhaps change jobs to provide novelty and excitement from the new environment which doesn't ultimately take care of the need for job satisfaction.

The burden of these decisions can be stressful. This means both stress produced by the smaller day to day events and also dissatisfaction with one's life-style, a much deeper level that tends to infiltrate day to day activities and functioning.

The study that is described in the following pages was set up to examine the links between these topic areas and how those links can have an impact on someone's life.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study was designed to examine two things: (1) the relationship of the professional developmental level and locus of control to the desire to maintain or develop job satisfaction; and (2) the potential that a workshop model could have in providing faculty and staff with an opportunity for self-renewal that was not centered on improving their teaching or academic abilities directly. Since the literature and preliminary research indicate that job satisfaction is tied to personal satisfaction, the workshop topics included areas of introspection and personal development which involved work related issues balanced with those of other personal realms such as family concerns.

Hypotheses

The hypotheses for this study are as follows:

. Faculty and professional staff members who have not been teaching for at least five years in a community college will not be developmentally ready or desirous of seeking opportunities for learning to improve job and personal satisfaction.

. Community college faculty and staff who operate with an internally oriented locus of control will utilize stress management techniques to decrease their perceived stress and maintain or increase satisfaction with job and personal life.

Therefore, in summary, it is hypothesized that professionally mature faculty and staff members with internal locus of control orientation will volunteer for a workshop program that will teach them methods for increasing or maintaining job satisfaction.

The independent variables are professional maturity (as determined by five or more years of community college teaching) and internal locus of control (as measured by the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale).

The dependent variable will be increase or maintenance of satisfactory level of job satisfaction as it specifically relates to management of perceived stress. By exercising control over effects of stressors the individual takes responsibility for his level of satisfaction with the elements of his life.

Design

The original design required a comparison of the Subjects with an internal locus of control with those who have an external locus in terms of their responses to the measures of

perceived stress administered as pre- and post-tests. The Subjects would be divided into Internals and Externals according to their scores on the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale. Similarly the design required a comparison of Subjects' stress levels as a function of time in community college teaching as a measure of the professional developmental level. The resulting design would have been a two by three design of the major variables "locus of control" and "professional maturity" Both pre- and post- measures of three types of stress served as the dependent measure.

Since the Subjects were all volunteers and their decision to participate was probably effected by these variables, the actual Subjects do not provide a full comparison as planned. This will be discussed as part of the results.

The sequence in carrying out this design was:

1. Bring together groups of volunteer faculty and professional staff in small groups (between eight and ten participants).
2. To begin a workshop the series of pre-tests are administered including Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale and three stress profiles.
3. Presentation of workshop material is in four segments designed to provide participants with skill in values clarification, life-planning, stress management and time management.

4. When the workshops are completed the series of stress instruments are again administered as post-tests, in addition to which each subject is interviewed, to determine if there had been any significant shift in responses indicating possible confirmation of the hypotheses. The scores of the first set of profiles are compared to those from the second and then compared to the verbal reports given by the subjects in the follow-up interviews.

Subjects. The subjects for this study were volunteer participants drawn from the teaching faculty and professional staff of a community college (Bunker Hill) within the Massachusetts Community College System.

The Subjects were recruited through an initial letter delivered to each desk, through announcements in the faculty staff newsletter and with a follow-up letter that was distributed through the college mail. The letters and announcements explained that a workshop series would be conducted to present the skills of stress management and that the expected outcome would be an understanding of and increase in job satisfaction.

The faculty and staff of this urban community college encompass a wide age range (25-67 years of age), many racial and ethnic backgrounds, fairly equally divided between male

and female, the majority of whom have degrees terminating at the Master's Level. In all the college employs one hundred and thirty-seven full-time faculty and professional staff members. Of this number approximately one-third have been with the college since it opened ten years ago.

The participant group was comprised of eleven males and thirteen females. Their ages were grouped yielding eleven in the twenty-eight to thirty-seven age range, six in the thirty-eight to forty-five age range, five in the forty-six to fifty-five age range, and two in the fifty-six to sixty-four age range. All the participants can be described as white and middle class. (Figure I)

FIGURE I

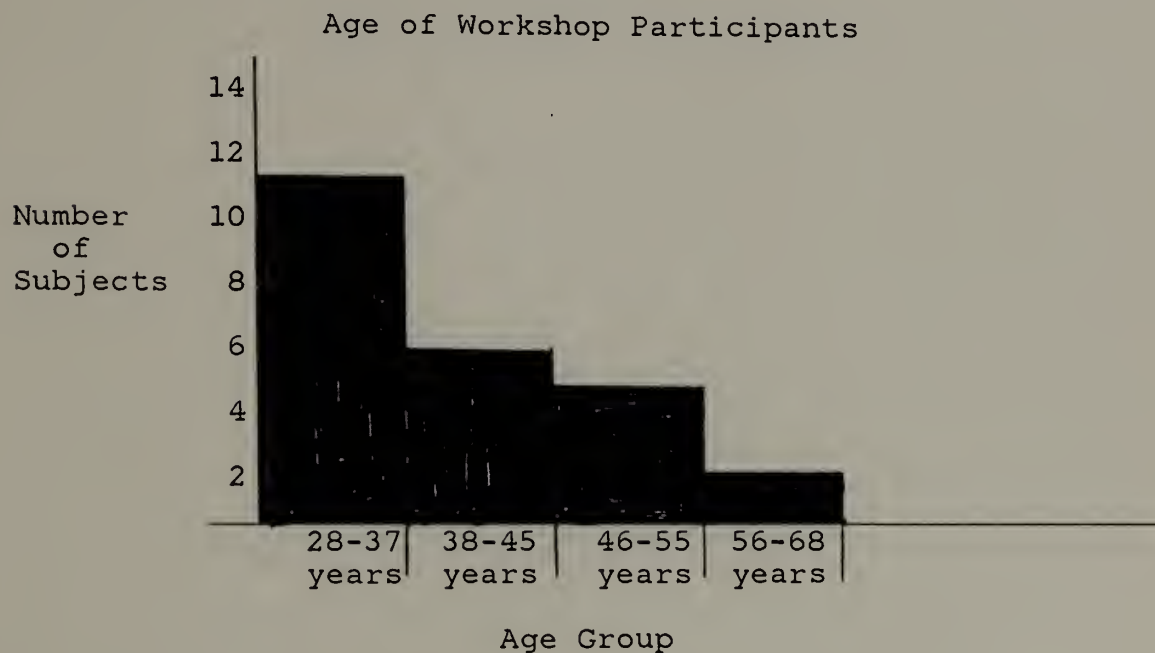
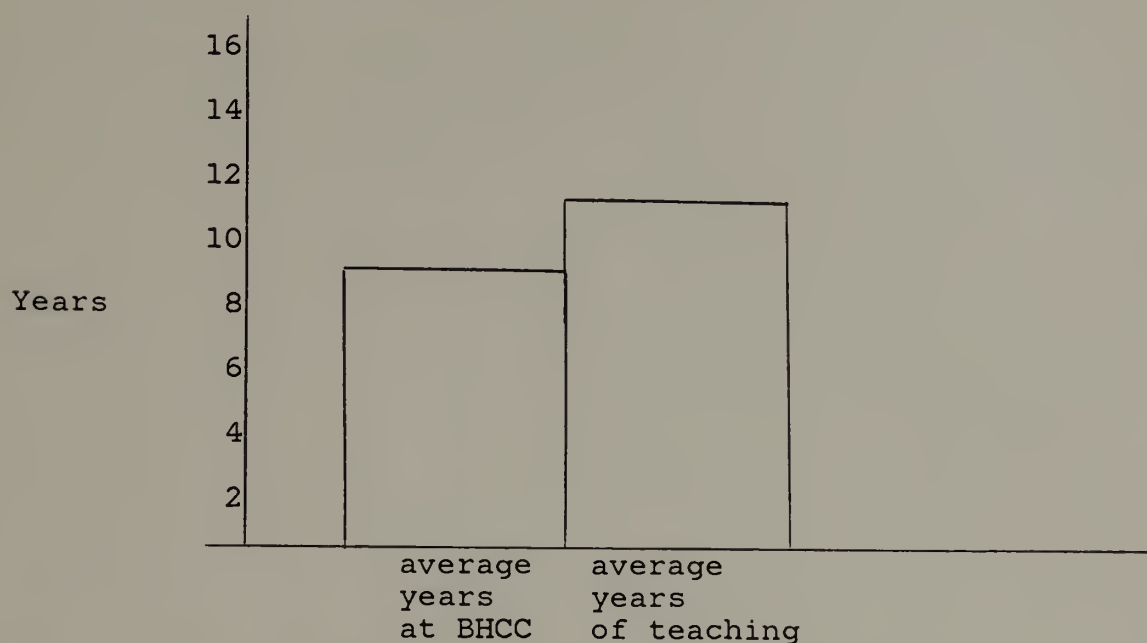


Figure Two illustrates the average number of years that the Subjects have been teaching at Bunker Hill Community College as compared to the number of years they have taught in any college. The sample averages seven years of teaching at Bunker Hill and eleven years of college teaching in general.

FIGURE 2

The Number Of Years Of Teaching At
Bunker Hill Community College and In General



Instruments. The data for this study is collected in six different ways. Personal data concerning number of years of teaching and ideas concerning the likelihood of staying or leaving the teaching field were recorded as answers to questions put onto the end of the first Stress Profile. This

was appropriate in relation to the nature of the other questions asked by the profile.

Whether the participants locus of control rated as being internal or external in its orientation was measured by Rotter's I-E Scale (see appendices). This was used to verify or deny the characteristics of the volunteers as proposed in the hypothesis.

The first profile, Stress Profile I (see appendix), is used to measure the personal state of anxiety that the participant perceives. This is assumed to fluctuate with the subject's understanding and ability to perceive stress. The second, Stress Profile II, rates trait characteristic responses in a variety of situations. This is assumed to alter from one administration to the next only when a person feels his or her behavioral responses have changed. Stress Profile III is an objective rating of the external events that occur in people's lives which characteristically take coping ability. These three profiles were administered as pre-tests and again as post-tests. The results of the second set were compared to the first to rate the amount of change in each area.

Finally, data was gathered in a follow-up interview. The answers to the questions provided the participant's subjective rating of the effectiveness, impact, and value of the workshop in relation to his life-style and behavior.

Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (see appendix) is a twenty-nine item (twenty-three substantive questions and three fillers) scale that requires a forced-choice response. It is scored by counting the number of "yes" responses to the twenty-three non-filler questions. Rotter (197_) specifies that scores of twelve or under describe internal locus of control orientation and scores of above twelve describe an external locus of control.

Stress Profile I is a twenty- nine item inventory designed to collect information regarding the areas in which the Subject perceives stress and lack of control. The items on this questionnaire (see appendix) are in the form of statements for which the Subject is given five degrees of agreement from which to pick. The pre- and post-test scores from this measure of state anxiety were compared to determine whether the amount of state anxiety rose or fell from beginning of the workshop to two weeks after the conclusion.

Since the questions were phrased both positively and negatively to get the Subject to stop and consider each one, they were converted to one direction for the sake of statistical analysis.

Stress Profile II is an inventory of twenty-eight items which is used to measure a persons's perception of personality traits in terms of responding to potentially stressful situations. The items are statements regarding behavior to

which the respondent must mark "yes" or "no" (see appendices) if he or she thinks that statement is characteristic of him or herself. It is scored by adding up the number of "yes" responses. "Yes" responses reflect the amount of "Type A", or high stress behavior in which a person believes he or she engages.

Stress Profile III is a measure of "Life Change Units." Life change units have been developed (see appendix) as a way of recording the external events that have occurred in someone's life which demand various levels of coping skills, signified by the numerical value placed on each event. The subject is asked to review the list and check off those events which have occurred in her life in the preceeding twelve months. The numerical value of each checked item is then added together to attain the final score. The authors and refiners of this score have recommended that a score of three hundred points or more will be an appropriate line of demarcation from which a Subject can be expected to have to engage in extraordinary coping.

Procedure. To provide the Subjects with opportunities to learn skills of stress management, a workshop was developed. One workshop was scheduled to meet one hour, once a week for five weeks. Two others were scheduled as all inclusive one day affairs, one met on a Saturday and the other met on the Friday following final exam administration. Because the day

long workshops did not have the advantage of time in between topic presentations to assimilate and practise the material, more time was added to the day-long schedules to allow for some of that to take place in between modules.

Through presentation of material in an interactive workshop format the goal was to educate the participants about the ingredients that comprise the stress response to what extent they can control the effect of these ingredients on their lives. Each component included skill building to give the participants actual strategies by which to effect the goals of the workshops.

The workshops were held within the college in the most comfortable conference rooms available. It was necessary to set the scene as being different from that of obligatory faculty meetings and committee responsibilities. It was important to make the individual participant feel like he or she was the focus of the session and get him or her to dissociate this meeting with work related responsibilities. To this end the focus of the physical arrangement was on the needs and comfort of the participants.

The room was arranged with a table in the center and comfortable chairs around it. There were fresh flowers on the table and off to the side was a table with fruit and cookies, partly decaffeinated coffee, and juice available to

participants at all times. These foodstuffs were designed and arranged attractively to show that thought and care had been put into the selection and presentation, e.g. the napkins were folded, the cookies and fruit were arranged on plates and real cream and sugar were provided.

The workshop leader was seated variously at the end of the table and in the middle dependent on whether the material to be presented was interactive or in more of a lecture format. This put her in full view of the participants and encouraged participation at the appropriate times.

The material that accompanied the workshop presentation (see appendix) was arranged in brightly colored folders with extra paper and worksheets included. They were distributed to the participants as they entered. They were free to peruse it while waiting for the workshop to begin.

A small amount of socializing and introductions took place at this time. Commonly, people made stress related jokes, told stories of the pressure they were currently under and in so doing made the transition from their work world to this new environment which required a shift in focus.

When the participants were all assembled the workshop leader formally introduced each member and his/her academic area. The leader then thanked the participants for coming and explained that the first order of business was that she would read a description of the workshop's parts and explain

that if at any time they wished to: withdraw, decline to participate, or ask questions that they were free to do so. After briefly explaining what they could expect the outcome of the workshop to be, she passed around the paper for participants to sign stating that they understood their rights and options and agreed to allow the data collected from the testing to be used anonymously in the research.

Part I - Testing. The leader then explained that it was necessary to administer the stress profiles at that point because if any more explanation were given their answers would be influenced.

First, the Rotter Internal-External Locus of Control Scale was administered. The tests were distributed with the answer sheets inside with the verbal instruction that as soon as each person had read the written instructions he/she was free to begin. The average time for completion was ten minutes. As each person finished the leader collected the Rotter I-E Scale and gave the member Stress Profiles I, II, and III to complete. The average time for completion of all three profiles was ten minutes. As each person completed the profiles, they were asked to put their name or a code (of their own invention) on each one.

Once each participant finished completing the scales, she/he poured coffee and reviewed the folder of materials until everyone was finished.

With everyone's attention, the leader then explained that she had included her business card in the materials that were distributed because her commitment to the process of helping with stress management extended for as long as the participants chose to use her services as a consultant. This meant that each person should feel free to contact her at any time regarding their application of the material to their lives or for requesting further information on any part of the workshop.

Part II - Values Clarification. The explanation was then made that stress, the perception thereof, interpretation, and effects vary for each individual based on many things. It was noted that in order to proceed with defining stress and describing personal management techniques it was necessary to define some personal values and engage in some discovery of what was important to each individual.

Because the whole premise of the workshop and the assumptions on which it is designed relate to assessing how closely someone's needs and values correlate with his/her present life-style and sense of his ability to control the outcomes of his behavior, it is necessary to spend some time establishing the content of those personal needs and values.

The first task aimed at accomplishing this is an exercise used by many in relation to values clarification but by Sid Simon (1972) and Alan Lakein (1973), in particular. It calls

for presenting the participant with the information that in six months from this day, he/she will be struck dead by lightning. They are then told that they can make two assumptions regarding the state of their affairs at that moment. The first is that "all arrangements are taken care of (will is made and family members are provided for, etc.)" and secondly, that the money supply is unlimited.

The instructions are to take ten minutes and make a list of everything that comes quickly to mind that he/she would like to do in the six months that remain. He or she is to aim for fifteen items and should not censor any idea that comes to mind. At the conclusion of ten minutes the next instruction is to draw three columns to the right of the list. The first column is for prioritizing the items by using "A" to designate items of highest value, "B" for secondary value and "C" for tertiary value. Each person is limited to only three items that can be designated as "A", but the "B's" and "C's" are unlimited. After completing this, the next task is to prioritize within the A's, B's and C's by assigning 1, 2, 3, etcetera to each letter.

Next, in the second column the task is to record who, in the person's life, she would have to have the cooperation of or be dependent upon in order to accomplish that item. Lastly, the third column is to make a record of the dollar amount that it would take to complete each activity.

In summary, the person is asked to answer two questions:

(1) How does this list of activities resemble your current life style? and (2) What would it take to start A¹, A², and A³ immediately? Once everyone was finished with those two questions it was suggested that they share and explain their charts with the person sitting next to or across from them. This was designed to demonstrate the individual variations on value structure that each person holds, also because hearing someone else's reaction to one's values and ideas can be rewarding and informative.

The next exercise is presented as a "reprieve" from the six-month lightning bolt, and the participant is given her life span back! The instructor begins the same way: in approximately ten minutes generate a list of fifteen or so activities which you would like to accomplish or engage in before your life is over. Do not censor yourself and put them down in whatever order comes to mind, and assume no financial limitations.

Once the list is complete, four columns are drawn next to the list on the right. The first is for prioritizing again, starting with assigning A, B, C to an item assuming "A" to mean highest priority or value. This time there are only three A's, three B's and the rest would be C's. After completing this the A's, B's, and C's were prioritized by adding "1", "2", or "3" to them.

The next column is for designation of the person(s), if any, who would need to cooperate in order for the item to be accomplished. The third column is for assigning a dollar amount to either begin, continue or complete the activity. The fourth column is for the actual date by which each activity would be begun, at a proficient level, or completed. The self discovery questions that follow this exercise are, (1) What did I learn from this chart?; (2) What did I relearn?; (3) List what it would take to accomplish "A¹"; (4) How does this chart compare to the the first ("lightning") chart?

This is followed by updating the partner from the previous exercise on what the changes are in the new chart and how the thinking behind it differs. The partners once again tended to give each other feedback and act as resource consultants.

In some instances people reported that their two charts were very similar and others said they were strikingly different and asked questions regarding this. It was explained that both conditions reflect how much a person does live his life in the present or how much he believes that the things he would find enjoyable are out of his reach or he is delaying these activities on the idea that the present is never quite right to engage in them and that there will be a better time in the future. The implication of this is that a person's

amount of personal satisfaction usually correlates with the amount of desirable activities he currently is engaging in or for which he is preparing. People who delay activities usually consider themselves to be living by someone else's ("society's") expectations and not their own--this inevitably leads to dissatisfaction in one's life and level of accomplishment. By the same token, the person who reports dissatisfaction and delays engaging in personally desirable activities can also attempt to place blame on external sources ("society") for his dissatisfaction. The overriding purpose of comparing and contrasting the preceding two charts, therefore, is to show the person some concrete evidence that rates how completely he or she is living for the present and is providing himself with means for achieving satisfaction. All of the information and activities that follow in the workshop are designed to educate the person as to the choices he or she is making daily and how control and effectiveness can be increased so that their sense of satisfaction can rise and be held high.

Part III - Life-Planning. The participants were asked to use the information they have now generated on themselves as reference in carrying out the life-planning activities.

Life-planning involves first constructing a five-year goal statement (Lakein, 1973). Such a goal statement requires description of a person's aims for professional, personal, social and physical aspects of life at a five-year point. It

is important, as in several other segments of this workshop, to cover all aspects (developmental "domains") of one's life because if even one is left out an area of personal satisfaction can become a source of dissatisfaction and pull down achievements in the other parts of life.

A prototype goal statement, constructed by the leader, was presented at this juncture. The participants were asked to begin writing such a statement. For the day-long workshops, when ten minutes had elapsed the leader interrupted to present the next set of instructions and suggested the participants take the next forty-five minutes to break for lunch and work on these two tasks at the same time.

The second set of life-planning instructions regarded the life-plan based on the five-year goal statement. This is to make blank charts covering a five-year span that divide each year into seasonal or trimester segments. Starting from now and/or five years from now the idea is to fill in the blocks with activities that lead to the five-year goals. Once again, it is important to include elements from the professional, personal, social and physical domains (the individual might desire to add another, e.g. spiritual) in order that attention be paid to rounding out the needs of the adult as Maslow (1970) has described. Participants were encouraged to include anything on the planning sheets, even if at first it not appear to lead directly to the goal. This encourages a

flow of ideas and works to prevent someone from thinking too rigidly along one line of thought which tends to block other ideas.

When the group broke to work on their plans, they chose to spend their forty-five minutes split between some socializing, both in discussion of the task at hand and of unrelated matters; in personal contemplation and solitary thinking and writing and some eating. During this time, the leader chose to absent herself for approximately twenty minutes to relieve the possibility that someone feels stared at and is therefore uncomfortable.

When the group reassembled, they were asked to each select one or more items from their life plan or chart of which they felt particularly proud or pleased. Then one at a time, each member presented that item(s) to the group with some explanation. The other group members were encouraged to act as resource consultants for each other.

There were some frequent observations and comments made at this point. This kind of discussion is a necessary process for assimilating the material. Most of them centered around the discovery that goals that they established for five years hence could easily be accomplished in three; that in the process of breaking down the goals into component steps they found them to be simpler and not as complex to execute as they expected. This was very surprising to most

people. It also tended to have the effect of impressing on them that this plan started with the present, involved their current activities, and, on the one hand was exciting because it gave them options to shoot higher than they had but along with that is tied the responsibility of taking action to fulfill one's goals starting now! Most found this exhilarating, some sighed when they realized that they had only themselves to thank/blame for the execution of the steps leading to self-fulfillment.

As was noted by the majority of the participants in the follow-up interviews, this element of sharing of things that are very personally important was one highlight of the session because they enjoyed the peer reinforcement and sharing of ideas and also because in their daily lives in academia they never have this kind of opportunity to share ideas in a non task-oriented gathering.

It should be noted that the leader did not anticipate that anyone could complete a five year life-plan in forty-five minutes. Her anticipation was that a good outline of three years would result (this was born out) in that time. The important point is the transmission of the skills involved in breaking goals into component parts and scheduling those parts. It is also true that each person has skill already in goal-setting and scheduling in one domain (probably short-term professional) but has never had the experience with the

others. This makes feedback important because everyone likes to know how they "measure up" at something new and unfamiliar. When asked how they would have responded if asked to construct a three-year plan instead, they unanimously reported that they would not have committed themselves to the process so completely and that it was necessary and appropriate for them to have been asked to work on a five-year basis.

In summary of this segment, it was recommended to the participants that they work on completing this later task at their leisure and that by doing so they would discover that it can become a routine that is customarily revived and revised every few months or as needed.

This exercise also serves to reinforce the idea that a person can have a large hand in controlling her own destiny, a concept necessary to being able to utilize all of the subsequent information and techniques in managing stress and gaining in satisfaction and fulfillment.

Part IV - Defining the nature of stress. This part of the workshop presentation was in lecture/discussion format. The presentation was as follows:

"Stress" as it is commonly used covers a multitude of ideas. The common usage combines both the sources and and effects. The group was asked how they define "stress" the way they commonly use it. Consistently, the answer was that stress means when pressures mount so high that you can no longer adjust to them.

The technical definition of stress has its origins in the world of biology. It refers to the physiological consequences on the body when the external pressures supercede a person's ability to adapt and adjust. The term (as popularized by Selye, 1974) must also be broken into parts: eustress and distress. Eustress is the word designating the response to events with a positive emotional valence; events the society commonly views as "good" (weddings, births, etc.) but which demand coping and physiological adjustment. Distress denotes the response to events with a negative emotional valence (death, loss of job) which also make demands of the body's adaptive mechanisms. The word for those events, i.e. the sources of stress, is "stressor". The strength of the stressor is individually determined, as is the decision whether something is eustressful or distressful.

In categorizing stressors three broad categories have to be considered: frustration, conflict, pressure to achieve. Frustration is the sense that action is blocked and resolution is out of reach because the cause does not have a clear focus or may be a conglomeration of factors and events. The participants concurred that a feeling of frustration involved a sense of having to grit one's teeth and make a fist (at least emotionally) because action seemed blocked.

Conflict also falls into three categories. The first, called approach/approach involves two goals which are equally

appealing in terms of their attainment. There is only option to attain one, however, and a choice has to be made. This appears to be conflicting because the pull toward each seems to be equally strong as in choosing between two automobiles or desserts.

The second form is an avoidance/avoidance conflict. Like the first it also involves having to choose between two goals or ends. This time each seems equally repelling and undesirable. The preference would be to avoid both as with driving two heavily travelled roads or between two odious chores.

The third kind of conflict is approach/avoidance. This involves only one goal and its characteristics make it equally desirable and undesirable simultaneously. For a dieter, it may be the pull between eating a dessert because it would taste good and not eating it because the caloric value is too high.

The quickest mode for resolution of these conflicts is to write a list of the factors on both sides of the issue (pros and cons). Usually, what had seemed like equal in strengths for and against does not appear to be so at all once the list is in full and balanced view.

The types of stressors is the next to be examined and described. As outlined by Charlesworth and Nathan (1982, pp 24-32) they are as follows:

. Emotional stressors: the fears and anxieties with which we struggle: e.g. inflation, bill paying, etc. As with all stressors what is emotionally stressful to one person is individual and is not always the same for any two people.

. Family stressors: interactions with family members can be stressful. This includes issues connected to marriage, divorce, single parenthood, birth, teen years, care for aging parents and in-laws, etc.

. Social: interactions with other people including dating, social engagements, giving a speech, business-related engagements, etc. The norm in this day and age is isolated life-styles without the neighborhood, community and extended-family support that was available when we did not move, relocate, divorce and live far from our families.

. Change stressors: when the level of change in a person's life rises higher or lower than is personally tolerable, coping will be required. Change stressors are experienced when we change anything important in our lives, this includes eustress and distress. There are discoverable limits to the amount of change that humans can tolerate. This includes events and combinations of events such as moving, starting a new job, giving birth, dissolving a relationship and demands made by technological advances. These levels of stress produced by change are measured and forecast

by the Stress Profile III - Life Change Units Test as devised by Holmes and Masuda and studied by many. This was administered in the beginning of this workshop.

It is important to note that stagnation and boredom, insufficient change in one's life can also be stress producing.

. Chemical stressors: these are stressors that are introduced into the body from many different sources. Most notably this includes drugs, pollution and food additives. Under the category of drugs we include caffeine, coffee, nicotine, pharmaceuticals, alcohol. Caffeine stimulates an anxiety reaction in the body. As commonly found in coffee, soft drinks, chocolate, tea and other foods, it often deceives people into thinking they are anxious for an external (emotional) reason. By looking for reasons for this anxiety they often fabricate an emotional difficulty that otherwise they would not have encountered.

Coffee is cited separately because lately, as reported in April 11, 1983, New Yorker Magazine, a substance has been found in both regular and decaffeinated coffee about which there is evidence that it may interfere with a pathways in the nervous system which controls our sensations of pain and pleasure. This puts it in the class of opiate drugs.

Nicotine is included because it demonstrably increases blood pressure. Alone this is undesirable but in combination

with coffee, for instance, someone can be asking his body to make extraordinary adjustments.

Pharmaceutical implies both prescription and non-prescription drugs and is noted for the idea that they are being consumed as an antidote to something that is causing difficulty but in addition the drug will also change physiological functioning.

Food additives have been linked to negative alterations in children's behavior and now the question is what effects might they be having on adults?

. Work: while each person is the best resource for enumerating job stressors there are some job characteristics that are worth noting. The first is to compare and contrast the nature of the occupations on the National Institute of Occupational Safety and Health's list of most and least stressful occupations. Characteristic of the jobs on the most stressful list is the idea that the worker has very little say or control about the flow and pacing of his work or of people's treatment of him. On the least stressful list the jobs commonly enable the individual to have a great deal of control over his or her performance and scheduling. The biggest factor in job-related stress is the sense of power and control one feels one has. This supports one of the reasons why this workshop focuses on developing techniques for taking control in one's life wherever that is possible

(preferring to do as much as possible to minimize the effects of conditions over which the individual has very little control).

Two other relevant points are that the more that a person is removed from his ultimate boss by middle management the further away he or she feels from the person who sets the tone and standards for the company and therefore the less valued the worker feels. The other is that the more immediate the results of a person's work the more he is able to feel rewarded by his actions.

. Phobic: Phobias are irrational, uncontrollable fears that cannot be reasoned away. They occur quite frequently and come in many forms such as the fear of being enclosed in small places, fear of crowds, fear of heights, etc. These often produce strong physiological response and have only been successfully overcome by use of desensitization techniques including the use of relaxation response.

. Commuting: in all its forms, requires conscious coping some days when the adversarial effects rise above normal. Heavy traffic, long commutes, overheated, noisy trains and unsafe subways are only some of the conditions commonly found on a daily basis.

. Physical stressors: representing demands that change the state of our bodies. There are many including: physical overextension, lack of sleep, poor nutrition, injury, pregnancy,

temporary illness and abrupt change, either from heavy physical activity to low activity or the other way around.

. Disease: cited separately because of the long term endurance and management of pain that attends disease. The endurance and adaptation that living with pain requires makes strenuous demands on the nervous system and involves continuous release of hormones that cause the body to break down tissue to convert into energy. In addition, of course, there is clearly an emotional component to adaptation to pain which in itself causes even more hormonal response. This will be explained in greater detail later.

. Environmental stressors: Noise pollution - incessant noise of typewriters, ventilation fans, harsh glare from lighting, loud traffic, high or low temperatures, climactic characteristics, including humidity, are all examples of stressors commonly found in today's environment.

The question now becomes do we eliminate, reduce or manage stress and our exposure to these stressors? While it will always be impossible to eliminate all stress, some can be eliminated by managing our response options differently. Because other stressors can act as motivating factors for some people, there is further argument that the most necessary choice is to manage and control the effects that stressors have on us.

Part V - Managing stress before it manages you. To begin this segment it is beneficial to review Charlesworth and Nathan's chart that compares the outcomes of stressors that have been well managed and those that have not. It shows the immediate effects and long-term expectations that result when stressful life-styles are engaged in versus the predictable effects when someone practices a healthful well-managed life style. The techniques and skills listed on this chart are those that were presented as the last part of the workshop presentation.

Of necessity the discussion began with an explanation of the "fight or flight" response. This is a function of our nervous system response mechanisms that has not adapted and kept pace with the demands of our modern life style. It remains attuned to the needs of our caveman ancestors for their hunting and (as we suppose) inter-personal problem solving not for the life-style of the urban cowboy or gentleman and woman as we see ourselves today.

The autonomic nervous system which is responsible for the "fight or flight" response is divided into two subsystems. The first, the sympathetic, is charged with gearing the body to respond with extraordinary strength in the presence of a stressor. It does so by releasing hormones, primarily norepinephrine as well as some epinephrine and acetylcholine which operate to slow down some bodily functions and increase

others, resulting in a marshalling of all available resources to provide muscular strength (fighting or fleeing). This process is not turned around until the danger is passed. The function of the parasympathic nervous system, the other autonomic branch is to restore the body to homeostasis. It acts to flush the system of the hormones released during the sympathetic nervous system's response.

While the former description is, in general, the response to physical stressors (still "fight or flight") there is an additional hormone released during the sympathetic response to emotional stress. This hormone, cortisol, is also responsible for garnering strength for the muscles but it does so by breaking down lean body tissue as opposed to converting stored fats as does norepinephrine. It also causes acids to build up in the blood stream. Without a clear signal to the parasympathic nervous system the acids continue to build and finally begin to turn against the body itself causing ulcerations, most commonly in the stomach lining. The only way we have of activating the parasympathic system is to engage in aerobic physical exercise, eliciting a sympathetic response and therefore triggering the parasympathetic to take over when the exercise ends. This actively flushes the acids and cortisol residue from the system in its effort to restore the body to normal healthy functioning. This places a great value on regular physical exercise aside from the more

commonly cited reasons of caloric utilization, strength and muscle tone.

Hans Selye, the pioneer stress researcher, has given us a scenario of physical response to stress which he calls the General Adaptation Syndrome. He has devised his description based on years of research with lower animals. While some current researchers are questioning its appropriateness in describing human physiological response, it bears describing because of the lessons we can learn from it.

The first stage of the General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS) is Alarm and Mobilization. This represents the body's mobilization of resources (sympathetic nervous system) to respond to the crisis. In its severe form this means going into shock because the stressor is so great. After the initial response, if the stressor continues the organism moves to the resistance stage. This means that the body prepares for a long struggle, amounting to a struggle between the sympathetic and parasympathic systems. The parasympathic which, unlike the sympathetic, does not work holistically and can only work with one organ at a time continually trying to restore homeostasis. The body has a finite ability to adapt and maintain this and after a prolonged period the resources are exhausted, hence the last stage. The Exhaustion Stage leaves the animal resources depleted and, starting in the

resistance stage, its defense against disease is continually waning making it very vulnerable.

While the GAS is a description of physical dimensions, it parallels that of most humans' emotional makeup. Our ability to cope with stressors over a long period of time is finite and can be exhausted. This relates to the Life Change Units Test (Stress Profile III), as we have said before in the presentation, which has been developed to rate the extent of the stressors to which a person has had to adapt and therefore a relationship to illness the person might or may have suffered as a result of having his defenses lowered. A nervous breakdown is an example resulting from this course of events.

People who manifest stress most commonly in one organ (stomachache, hives, etc.) are demonstrating end-organ involvement wherein the most common place for the hormone buildup to show itself would be characteristically predictable.

To put all of this new found knowledge into practice it now will be translated into some practical applications. This what I call training to be a personal environmental engineer.

To be an effective environmental engineer there are some questions and considerations that need to individually considered.

The first is: what rewards you? What do you find personally rewarding on a quick and easy basis? Is it toxic or non-toxic? Everyone needs one or more things (or activities) to which they can turn in moments of pressure. It is also necessary that it be non-toxic because toxicity breeds guilt.

The second is: do you have personal time built into your schedule on a regular basis? This comes in at least two forms. One is time planned into a day that is all for you and you alone. During this time you engage in any activity (active or inactive) that you have chosen and no one has censored or altered. It may last for five minutes or an hour, it is up to you. It may be combined with your exercise session or even could be listening to the radio while you commute, but you must come out of it feeling like it was your own. The most important function of this is to recharge our personal batteries in order to continue to give to the world without becoming drained.

The other kind of personal time involves momentary time-outs as needed any time in a day. As children we were chastized for "day-dreaming" whereas as adults we are encouraging it in each other. Everyone probably has a favorite two or three "instant" day-dreams which are only a blink away. One example that gets this leader started begins with a favorite cartoon of a person in a hammock, one end of which

is tied to a tree and the other to a kite. This represents calm and relaxation to me and takes only a split second of real time to be effective as a calming agent.

Similar to the notion of rewards is the idea of solace. What provides you with solace? As children "security" blankets, teddy bears and other stuffed animals are routinely provided. Adults need to be soothed too. Knowing how to provide oneself with solace is a cornerstone of being mentally healthy.

One of the most important areas that often gets neglected is nutrition. Here we are not speaking from the point of view of diet for weight loss but rather in terms of the total balance of food consumed in a day. While it's true that everyone needs a different level of caloric, the components of those calories hold for us all. The simplest way I have found for organizing this information so that it is easy to remember comes from Dr. Albert Creff (19), the attending physician for the French Olympic teams. His rules for good nutrition center around the concept of balancing each meal (only you know how many meals that should be) to include 1 portion of fat, 2 portions of protein, and 3 portions of carbohydrates. Portion is defined individually by the consumer and implies a balance of size of portions within a meal. In the case of fat, (a lubricant to digestion) it is most healthful to divide your portion between vegetable and

animal fat; e.g. one pat of butter and one tablespoon of salad oil (vegetable type). With the protein, it is very desirable to have one of your portions as a milk derived protein and the other can be any other kind or can also be milk derived. The carbohydrates should provide a balance between the three to include a starch, a green vegetable and another. If a sweet tooth is present, then a fourth portion of carbohydrate can be added for a dessert. I will mail a list of what each food is considered to be: a fat, a protein food, a carbohydrate food, to each participant, subsequent to the conclusion of the workshop. For ease and convenience, Creff says that each food only fits into one category.

In a recent radio interview with Jane Brody, a nutritionist, it was pointed out that Americans have the tendency to eat their meals in reverse sizewise of our caloric needs and usage. For example, the time we have the greatest need for fuel (calories) is in the beginning of our day and traditionally breakfast is the smallest meal (or nonexistent) for some). The evening meal tends to be the largest and after it we engage in a very low level of activity by comparison to daytime and yet we have the greatest intake of fuel at that time. Hence, she suggests we should eat breakfast like kings, lunch like princes and supper like paupers. While we may not find this easy to accomplish, we can at least be alerted to the need of a complete and well-balanced breakfast.

The relaxation response or sometimes called progressive relaxation is the most consistent and valuable technique for both reducing an existing stress response as well as being a preventative in arming against allowing former stressors to trigger a stress reaction.

The relaxation response is closely akin to what is practiced as part of meditation in some Eastern religions. Within the last twenty years some researchers (notably Herbert Benson, M.D.) have documented, through measurement of muscle tension, that by practicing progressive relaxation someone can take control of their musculature and even alter their brainwaves. This implies that we can ultimately trigger or at least greatly assist our parasympathetic nervous systems to calm ourselves and stem the flow of activating hormones.

The participants were then guided through the basic technique as they practiced. This meant positioning themselves in their chairs so that they had the least amount of pressure on any limb and that they were sitting in an aligned position. Then starting with the top of the head they were guided through muscle relaxation from head to toe. They were taught how to spot scan the muscle groups to check that no tension had crept back in. While they were working their way down to their toes the leader explained that after some practice the use of this technique to instantly relieve

stress buildup becomes possible. This also can be used in a public situation without anyone else becoming aware of it. One of the best ways of triggering it is to start with a soothing or enjoyable image. Examples are: a waterfall (perhaps pouring over you); fishing on a quiet river bank; birdsong; etcetera. It is a personal image and no two people will have the same (successful) image. Once this is in place and the muscles are used to what it feels like to be relaxed, then it is possible to engage relaxation response regularly by forming an association of it with (former) stressors such as red lights or a ringing telephone. The minute this response is activated then the person talks herself through the steps to a totally (but still functioning) relaxed state.

It is necessary to practice this technique for a while (i.e. ten-twenty minutes six times a week) before it is within someone's command.

Physical exercise as previously explained, is critical to a healthful stress-managed life-style. This leader has observed that there are some rules that make it likely that exercise will be enjoyable and practiced regularly.

1. Choose the kind of exercise you enjoy doing. Fads or pressure from others is a poor method of choosing the form of exercise in which to engage.

2. The exercise should be readily available to you. If you have to drive or arrange transportation that is

further than five minutes away it becomes easy to postpone or avoid it altogether.

3. It should be free or cheap. If exercise requires having money in your pocket it is easy to avoid it when money is tight. If the insitution requires an affordable membership fee and then no surcharge for admission then that is likely to be successful for many people.

4. If your preferred form of exercise requires a partner then you need to make contingency plans for another form of exercise when a partner is not available. Some people find it easy to delay, postpone or cancel if they have a partner on whom to place blame.

5. It is commonly thought that to be of value, exercise (aerobic) should be practiced at three times per week for at least twenty minutes. Increasing to even just five times a week, however, can have dramatically positive effects.

Managing time well so that process becomes natural and not just an additional task was the part of this workshop presentation.

To begin, the participant is asked to visualize his or her desk and to sketch it on a piece of paper from his folder. On completion she is asked to view this drawing while the leader asks some questions. How is the surface of the workspace organized? Are there piles? Do the piles

contain only work of equal importance to one another or are there tasks of varying importance with varied deadlines?

Keeping these in mind see if the following ideas are of use to you.

1. Daily scheduling: Either at the conclusion of a workday when summing up or at the beginning of the day if you prefer to ease into it, try making a "to do" list. This can be valuable in saving time for several reasons and in several ways. Once begun the list should reflect all items as they occur to you. Do not try to organize it as it is generated, rather assign "A", "B", or "C" to an item afterward to designate its level of importance in relation to the other items. From this list organize your desk into permanent A, B, C piles or drawers. When an item comes to your attention decide on the spot what letter it needs and file it accordingly.

2. Determine what your personal period of highest energy is on a daily basis. If you are a morning person try and organize your schedule to reflect that. Some of your prime time each day should be allotted for "A" items. Even if time allows only one task that contributes to getting "A" done it will be time that is ultimately satisfying. The "B" pile is reserved for standard items that maintain your job, require good work, but not high creativity. The "C" pile is

anything else! It often contains items that no one will ever ask for, or that you promise yourself you will return to. Often after months have passed and you find that you have not delved into the "C" pile once so you can pick up the whole thing and file it in the waste basket.

3. Alan Lakein, a time management specialist, recommends following the motto "only once with feeling". This especially applies to items that would be filed in the "B" and "C" piles. It implies that after reviewing the item when it first comes into your hands if you put it down and have to pick it up again you have just wasted your time.

4. Essential to good time management is scheduling reward/personal time into your work day. As humans, we work best if we are conscious of being rewarded for a job well done, even if we arrange and provide those rewards to ourselves. This is not optional or expendable but rather a necessity in your schedule. If you give in every time someone interrupts you as you sit for your personal time then simply say that you have a previously scheduled appointment (which you do!). If this makes you feel guilty, then establishing "availability time" will help counteract that feeling. If you tell people what hours you are available and can be reached by telephone and in person then no one can or will complain that they cannot reach or find you.

The same principle holds true at home when you are trying to balance your needs for personal time against those of your family or house mates. Once again, you can bargain. If you would like some time to yourself alone then commit yourself to the time (15 minutes-1/2 hour, for instance) you will spend with your child, for instance, doing anything he or she would like you to do. This bargaining can eliminate nagging each other for "place" or attention and both sides win.

5. "Slack time" is a helpful inclusion in your schedule. This consists of time when you plan to work on B and C piles but could be interrupted without feeling like you have been cheated out of valuable work time. This is best scheduled in the non-prime creativity time of day.

The next step is to examine your current daily and weekly activities to see how close they come to the schedule you would have if you had control over your activities. As you reshape your schedule think once again to including activities that address your needs in the four domains: cognitive enrichment (outside of the work environment), social-pleasurable interaction, physical-nutrition and exercise and emotional/spiritual.

As you take control of the activities and effects of stressors in your life consider the types of decision-making styles that are available to you. The kinds are:

1. habit--that's how you've always done it.
2. demands of others--whenever you do something "that is expected of you", you still made that decision; that means you own it
3. escapism--any other route would be too uncomfortable
4. spur of the moment
5. default--not making a decision is still a decision
6. conscious decision--weighing all the options

There is no reason to change a decision-making pattern if you are happy with it. Decisions in your life are yours to make. When something weighs on us we need to ask "are we living by our own script for ourselves or are we uncomfortable because we have been cast in a role or part by someone else? If the former is the case then the options that you lay out are within your control. If the latter is the case then we have granted others the power over our behavior.

In this workshop we have reviewed many aspects of living and presented and discussed techniques whereby we can maximize our pleasure and satisfactions by employing our abilities to influence and control our life-styles and the effects of stressors on us.

Post-Test and Follow-Up. The participants were thanked and given second copies of the three stress Profiles to take with them and complete two weeks from the date of the workshop.

Arrangements were then made for contacting each participant for a follow-up interview.

The follow-up interviews were conducted between two and four weeks following the conclusion of the workshops. They were conducted one to one with each participant and averaged one-half hour in length. They were conducted in person in quiet settings which allowed the Subject privacy.

The interview format, developed by the researcher, included five questions and was designed to encourage discussion of each item. The questions, as asked and transcribed by the interviewer were as follows:

1. What aspect of the workshop remains the most vivid or made the greatest impression on you?

2. Do you feel you have retained the information presented? When you review the notes and handouts provided by the leader are you able to utilize the specifics of the information presented?

3. What aspects of the workshop presentation have you consciously incorporated into your life?

4. Do you feel you are more in control of the effects of stressors in your life?

5. What feedback and general comments do you have concerning any aspect of the workshop or presentation?

From here follows a presentation and discussion of the results and findings of the study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This study was run to demonstrate the possible effectiveness of stress management and other personal development techniques in allowing faculty and professional staff to experience a greater sense of control over their environment and therefore to increase their sense of job and personal satisfaction.

The hypothesis describing this was that faculty and staff who are at a mature professional developmental level and who operate with an internal locus of control will utilize stress management techniques to decrease their perceived stress and maintain or increase satisfaction with job and professional life.

The volunteers who responded to the recruitment efforts were drawn from one part of the total population only - those who have been teaching at Bunker Hill Community College for an average of more than five years. This eliminated the ability to make comparisons between beginning faculty and staff and those who had gained professional maturity. The group on campus who fit this description add up to a total of forty-two who were available to participate. Twenty-five

people volunteered (one later dropped out due to illness) or sixty percent of the target group.

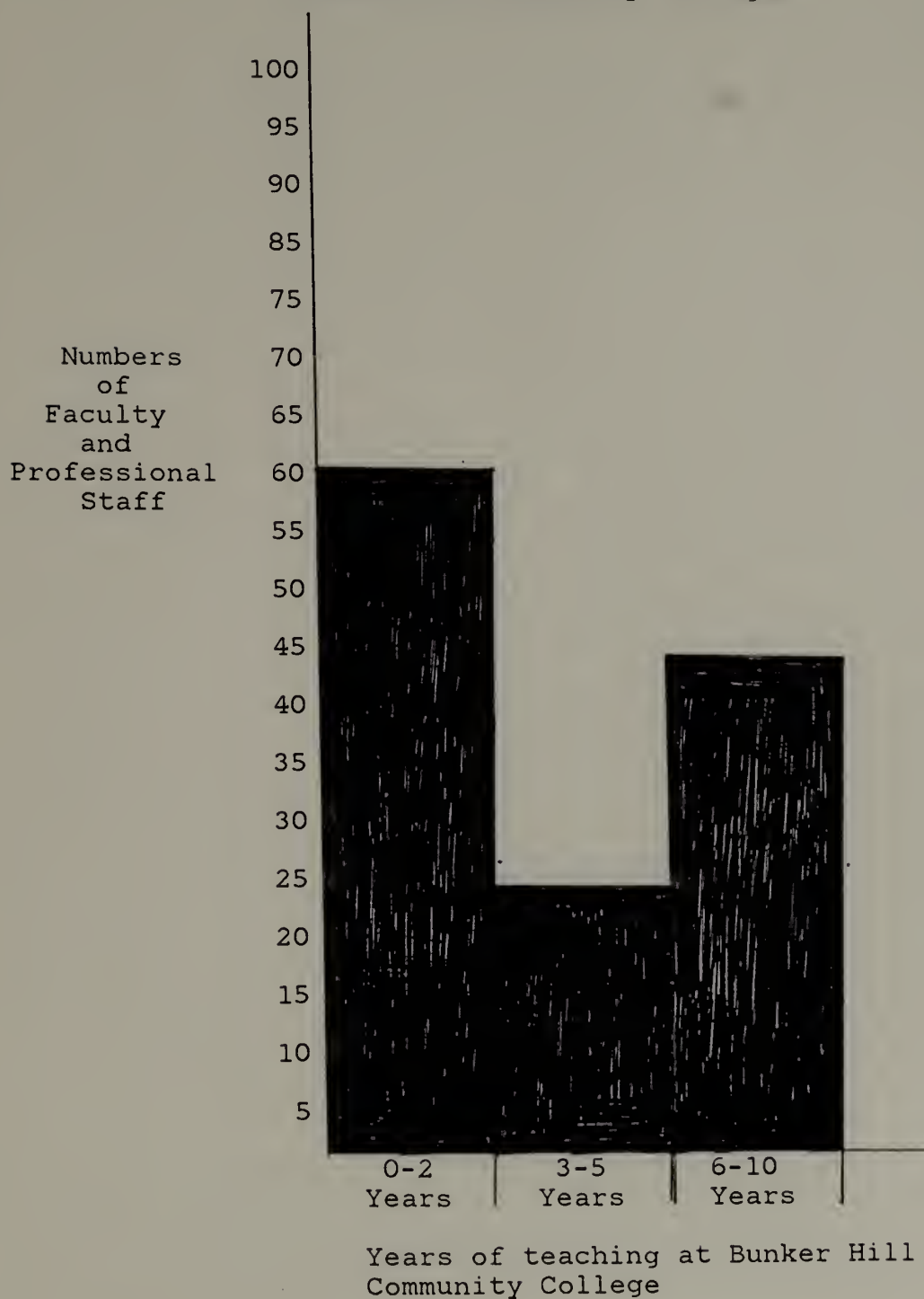
This report will be presented in two parts, therefore. The first will be a discussion of who volunteered for this study: their characteristics and how they compare to the population as a whole. The second part will discuss the effectiveness of stress workshops for the population.

The Subjects characteristics versus the general population.

The workshops were advertised to all one hundred and thirty-seven faculty and professional staff members. Of this group, sixty have been at the college for two years or less, twenty-four have been at the college for three to five years and forty-two have been at the college for between six and ten years. The remaining balance were off campus at the time of the workshops and not in a position to attend. Figure three illustrates this distribution.

Figure 3

Distribution Of Years In Service Of
Faculty And Professional Staff at
Bunker Hill Community College



The sample who volunteered for the study average six years in service at Bunker Hill Community College. As Figure Two in Chapter Three illustrates, this puts them in the upper third of "senior faculty" because they have been on campus for between six and ten years. The college opened ten years ago making ten years the upper limit of time in service that is possible.

According to the developmental profiles described in Chapter One, the group most likely to be in need of enrichment would be those who had been on the job for more than five years. It was therefore speculated that the Subjects who would most benefit from and utilize the workshop would be those who were developmentally mature professionally, as compared to those who were new to the job. In fact, this speculation was correct but to the exclusion of comparison. Of the Subjects who volunteered only one had been teaching at Bunker Hill for one year and three had been teaching for three years, the rest have been at the college for more than five. All participants have been in academic positions for more than five years. Because of this outcome, it is necessary to note the similarities of this group and how they compare to the rest of the faculty and staff.

Junior faculty are still working into the job and finding their place in the academic milieu. They do not share the characteristics that accrue to the senior group:

the initial excitement of a new teaching job as founding member has work off; promotions are scant; career mobility is lacking and therefore a conflict arises that taxes the continued dedication and love of teaching.

It is necessary to consider the information collected informally about why the rest of the faculty and staff in the senior group of forty-two did not volunteer. At least four contacted the researcher to say that there were consistent time conflicts preventing them from attending.

The rest were reportedly worried about the political ramifications of attending if by chance they became labeled as "stressed" or "burned out"; or they reported themselves as being too busy, harried or stressed to afford the time to come.

Locus of Control. As with any self initiated change in behavior and belief system the Subject has to believe that change is possible and he or she will be able to effect it. If someone does not have that belief then he is unlikely to be motivated to see past his current state of being stressed or pressured in order to attend a workshop, the focus of which is to become less stressed and pressured. He will continue to maintain and/or increase a state of being that works to convince him that his stress comes from outside of himself, external to his control. If it had been ethically and physically feasible, the ideal would be to administer

Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale to the entire faculty and staff or at the very least to all forty-two in the senior group. This would demonstrate whether there is a polarity, in fact, between those who did volunteer and those who did not in terms of internal-external locus of control.

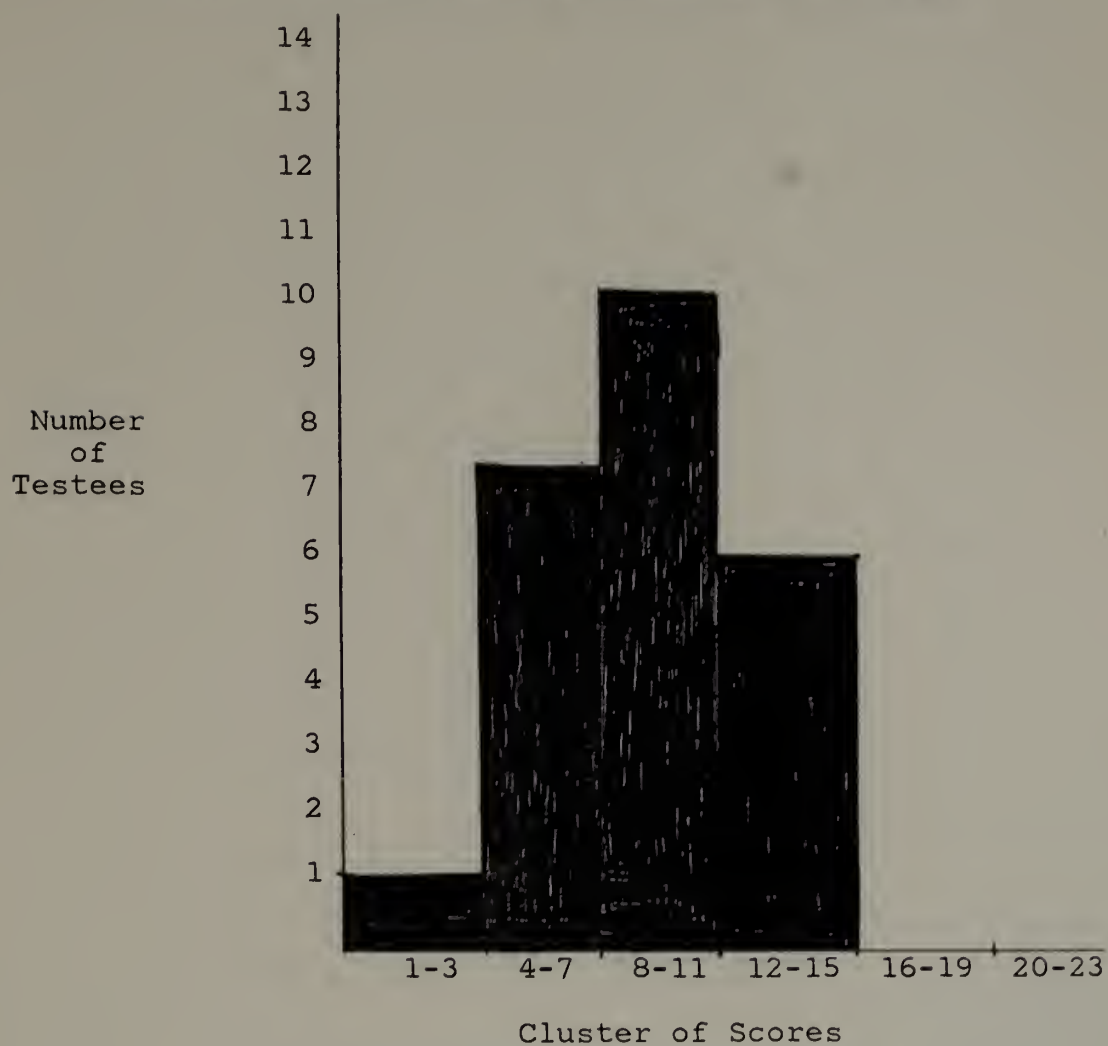
The Subjects who volunteered tested out as internally oriented. The scores ranged from three to fifteen with the largest cluster at the eight to eleven group. The mean score is 9.6 which falls below the cutoff of 11.5 after which the testee gains on the external locus of control. Table one illustrates the mean scores of the men and women and the group as a whole. Figure four illustrates the distribution of scores by the group. The smallest score possible (internal extreme) is one the highest score possible (external extreme) is twenty-three.

TABLE 1
Results of Internal-External Locus
of Control Scale

Group	N	M
Women	13	9.7
Men	11	9.5
Total Group	24	9.6

FIGURE 4

Distribution Of Scores On Rotter I-E Scale



In summation, as was presented in Chapter One and Two, a person without an internal locus of control has difficulty finding reasons to convince himself that he can be in control of the consequences of his own behavior. Without a foundation in the belief that the individual can take control of the effects of stressors on himself, including both physically and mentally, he will spend the workshop time finding reasons why this wouldn't work for him and thereby refuting its effectiveness. It is therefore a seeming prerequisite in the self-selection process that the potential participant believe fundamentally that he can learn to control and thereby change his response systems and therefore the effects of external events.

Effectiveness of stress management workshop. The effectiveness of the workshop was expected to be measured with the pre- and post-test stress profiles and with the follow-up interview.

The results of Stress Profiles I, II, and III must be viewed together for the data to be understood. They, all three, reflect differing aspects of a person's perception of stress and together provide a balanced view.

Before the actual data are reviewed for interpretation it is necessary to report elements which influence the interpretation.

To begin with, the profiles were not designed for tight statistical analysis but were more characteristic of self-

report inventories. These profiles, in combination, give a well rounded picture of the client's perception of stress as it is affecting him or her. When a person's perception is enhanced and educated, not only will his reporting behavior change but his use of stress inventories changes also. The Subjects in this instance, reported to the researcher that by the end of the workshop they discovered that they had not told "the truth" on the first set of profiles. Now that they understood stress they set out to correct their reporting when completing the second set of profiles! This meant, they warned, that characteristically, the second set or post-test profiles could be expected to give evidence of an increase in stress! In addition, many reported using the post-tests as a guideline for designation of areas of stress responding over which they would now seek to practise their new found control. This greatly reduced the effectiveness of the pre- and post-measures in rating a decrease in perceived stress as a result of the workshop training.

The results of Stress Profile I cannot be said to be statistically significant at $p > .10$. This implies that there is no apparent change in a person's perceived ability to control the effects of stressors between the first administration and the post-test. Because of the participants' reported behavior in completion of these pre- and post-administrations of this state anxiety profile this could be and was predictable.

TABLE 2

Correlated Sample Means for Pre and
Post Stress Profile I Test Scores

Test	df	\bar{x}_1	\bar{x}_2	Mean difference	t	significance
Stress Profile I	22	79	80.2	1.2	-.6990	p > .10

The results of the trait profile, Stress Profile II, showed a trend toward reduction of behaviorally manifested stress responses but was still not statistically significant at a rating of $p > .10$. Here again this was an area in which subjects reported a lessening of inhibition in admitting to behaviors that could be viewed as "Type A", when completing the post-test. They reported that they were now conscious that stress effected everyone and that potential stressors are ever-present and they were no longer reluctant to examine (and report on) their own behavior critically with an eye to the areas greatest in need of change. This means, as they reported it, that intially they attempted to complete the pre-test in a manner that they deemed the most socially desireable. While the post-test did show a trend toward lessening of "Type A" behavior it was not as great as it might have been had it remained a measure viewed by the Subject twice in the same light. The Subjects apparently found this profile very helpful in structuring areas of

change to which they would actively apply their new found skills for change.

TABLE 3

Correlated Sample Means For Pre and
Post Stress Profile II Test Scores

Test	df	\bar{x}_1	\bar{x}_2	Mean difference	t	significance
Stress Profile II	22*	9.39	8.78	0.61	1.0980	p > .10

*As with Profiles I and III, df for Profile II equals twenty-two because one set of responses had to be dropped because the post-tests were unavailable, as was the Subject following the workshop.

Stress Profile III was included specifically to provide a backdrop against which a person's need for coping skills could be monitored. It is intended to be an objective recording of events that have taken place in the Subject's life in the prior twelve months which demand various levels of coping and stress management in order to come through that period with the fewest possible personal ramifications. It was assumed that if the Mean Life Change Units held the same for the pre- and post-tests that the participants would have a fair opportunity to practise and perfect their new skills. if the LCU's went up then they were being asked to learn new skills and pit them against old response modes that can get in the way of effectively assimilating the new response

modes. It was not anticipated that the one month possible elapse time would allow the scores to go down significantly.

There was an increase in the Mean number of Life Change Units. This resulted in moderate statistically significant at $p < .01$. The importance of this result is that clearly the increase in Life Change Units for the group created a barrier which was necessary for them to surmount in order to effectively utilize their new skills quickly enough to have an impact on how they rate their level of perception of stress two weeks to one month after their first rating (the Pre-tests).

TABLE 4

Correlated Sample Means for Pre and
Post Stress Profile III Test Scores

Test	df	\bar{x}_1	\bar{x}_2	Mean difference	t	significance
Stress Profile III	22	162	176	14	2.7301	$p < .01$

Of the total group, fourteen people's scores went up on the post-test, six went down and three stayed the same. Of the group as a whole only three people exceed the three hundred LCU cut-off marking a high-stress level. All three scores increase on the post-test. The other twenty-one participants' scores ranged from forty-two up to two hundred and thirty-five. These scores are well within the range of usual life change units that do not require extraordinary coping skills.

The quantitative results of the pre- and post-test profiles make it necessary to rely on the qualitative data gained from the follow-up interviews in order to determine whether hypothesis was supported. Self-report inventories are known to have shortcomings (Cronbach, 1970) as a result of the great influence of a person's changes in education on a subject apply to him. As an example, one participant reported that even when completing the Life Change Units test, Profile III, that the (supposedly objective) events in his life which he believed to have been important to record because they were stress producing might have been discarded or disregarded on the post-test profile because he now believed he had been perceiveing problems (e.g. with in-laws) that now he doesn't really believe exist because he is now in control in the situation. Overall this bodes well for the outcome of this study but meanwhile this kind of reporting behavior can cloud statistics unmercifully. The results of comparing the scores of the pre-tests with the post-tests indicated that the subjects experienced a rise in external stressful events but that their perception of their personal stress level did not rise.

The Follow-up Interview. Results from the interviews uncovered strong support for the hypothesis, and give evidence that the objectives of the workshop were met. The subjects reported a

good degree of understanding of the subject matter presented, including definitions and behavioral strategies.

It is evident from the variety of first answers to Question 1 that the topic areas chosen for the workshop met the Subjects' needs. Emphasized are: 1) the knowledge of stress and skills for its management, 2) the great need for interpersonal contact and sharing of one's goals and aspirations in a non-work related environment, 3) the concept and skills for life-planning. These predominating answers demonstrate the desire to learn to control the effects of environmental events; a need to affiliate with peers in a trusting environment which may provide positive feedback; and by planning for future and maximizing opportunities you are better able to "have your self-esteem and live it too." This substantiates a component assumption stated in Chapter One that faculty desire and benefit from "staff development" workshops that are not always centered on improving their skills in teaching or retooling them on a professional basis. Recharging generative people can often be accomplished by supplying them with attention to their other needs, i.e. personal, cognitive, physical, and social in addition to their professional. The second and third answers to Question 1 give evidence for this.

The answers to Question 3 provide qualitative evidence for the dependent variable. These faculty and professional

staff are utilizing the techniques and skills developed in the workshop in order to enhance the quality of their lives. They are accomplishing this, they say, by practising life-planning skills and setting goals, both long-term and short-term. They also report actively identifying and working to manage stressors and their effect and thereby maintaining "good mental health", a need of the personal and cognitive domains. Practice of relaxation response, good nutrition, and regular exercise attend the needs of the physical and consequently the emotional domains. Last, but not least, the mention by the participants that they are setting goals and working on following through on accomplishing them ("short-term goals" and "dreams") can only be made by people who believe that hope and therefore change are not futile ideas. Carrying out dreams (goals) requires a belief that one can effect the consequences of one's behavior.

TABLE 5

Responses to question #1 of follow-up Interview

Number of S's Responding	First answer to question #1
7	. The mechanics of stress: cause, effect and practical application.
5	. Interpersonal discussion and sharing in a non-task oriented environment

4	. Presentation and learning of life-planning skills
1	. Nutrition information
1	. Welcoming atmosphere of the Workshop (flowers, food and caring)
1	. Relaxation response training
1	. Learning to prioritize activities
1	. Learning to dwell on the positive
1	. "The moment of truth": stress results from lack of control

TABLE 6

Second and Third Responses to Questions #1
of Follow-up Interviews

Number of S's Responding	2nd and 3rd responses to question #1
7	. Constructing five year plans and learning life planning skills
5	. Stress management skills and learning how to resolve conflicts in relation to stress.
3	. Talking with colleagues in non-task oriented setting
3	. Nutrition information
3	. Presentation of the idea that stress is a physiological response
1	. Looking at the stress inventory and discovering I'm under a lot less stress than this time last year
1	. The questionnaire helped me think of things systematically

Question Two, as it was asked is: Do you feel you have retained the information that was presented? (see Table 7).

TABLE 7

Responses to question #2 of follow-up Interview

Number of S's Responding	response to question #2
18	. Yes - it was a good synthesis. - if I do forget I will review the notes. - I can retrieve it easily
5	. I think so, especially with the notes.

Question Three asked: What part of the workshop have you consciously incorporated into your life? The answers (first, second, etcetera) are combined in Table 8.

TABLE 8

Responses to question #3 of follow-up Interview

Number of S's Responding	responses to question #3
11	. Setting goals and planning for the future.
11	. Keep better mental health by using stress management techniques.
8	. Exercising regularly and planning for exercise.

- 6 . Practising relaxation reponse.
 - 4 . Making regular "personal time".
 - 6 . Practising good nutrition and eating a balanced diet.
 - 2 . Continuing values clarification
 - 1 . Shared my goals with my significant other.
 - 1 . Give stressful situations some space and time to start to work themselves out before I jump in.
 - 1 . Learning to manage resources to be able to act on dreams and plans.
 - 1 . Further reduction of caffeine intake.
 - 1 . Am conscious of stressors.
 - 1 . I take comfort from knowing "I'm not alone".
 - 1 . I have become more systematic about following through on goal activities.
 - 1 . Have started to deal with my paperwork according to the "once, with feeling rule."
-

Question four asked the participant whether she or he feels more in control of the effects of stressors on her life?

The answers are listed in Table 9. Since the answers are very individual and reflect the effectiveness of the workshop, they were not grouped together.

TABLE 9

Responses to question #4 of follow-up Interview

Number of S's Responding	Answer to question #4
1	. Yes, made me focus and think about some things that I didn't want to think about and was avoiding.
1	. I am more aware of the need to take control. It takes time to learn, but I'm doing it.
1	. Yes, I don't know if it is cause or effect but yes.
1	. A little bit more - had some control before - now I have the strategies.
1	. Probably, - at my age you have either learned to cope or you haven't. This new perception helps to cope better.
1	. I will have more control as time passes, it is too soon to know.
1	. I am practising, it is too soon to know.
1	. Not yet; I'm practising; it takes time. I am now aware that I <u>can</u> take control.
1	. I am, but it is too soon to know.
1	. Yes, our house moving was very unstressful!
1	. Yes, the questionnaire (Post-tests) helped to point that out.
1	. I'm still practising - at 61 years of age it is asking a lot to make big changes in two weeks. I now perceive stress objectively though.
2	. Yes overall, too soon to know but I am practising

- 1 . Yes, I have learned something about myself. I was quite surprised and happy about what I learned about myself.
- 1 . Yes, I think I'm more willing to try to take control, now that I know it is possible.
- 1 . Yes, I don't feel stressed.
- 1 . Yes, overall. I am more open now about the things that bother me; less stoic.
- 1 . I'm trying to control and not be controlled.
- 1 . I still have to make some big decisions. I don't do well at that. I am not showing any physical manifestations. I am practising and I'm sure it will get better when I have a chance to deal with it.
- 1 . Not "control" so much as I am better able to recognize stressors.
- 1 . Yes, for external reasons as well as for my own skill.

The last question asked the participants for feedback and general comments regarding any aspects of the workshop presentation and subject matter. (Table 10)

TABLE 10

Responses to question #5 of follow-up Interview

Number of S's
Responding

First answer to question #5

- 8 . Workshop might best be divided into two or three sessions.

- 7 . It was good, it came at a good time. I enjoyed it.
- 5 . There could be more practise of the techniques.
- 3 . The workshop should be offered on an on-going and regular basis.
- 3 . It was great to get together with colleagues in a non-task oriented environment.
- 3 . The size of the group was perfect.
- 3 . I've discovered my true driving (automobile) behavior as a result of this workshop.
- 2 . The organization of the material was good, followed a pattern, one step led to another.
- 2 . It would be good for it to go a little longer - perhaps another sessions.
- 2 . It would be ideal to have a follow-up session to review implementation in three-four months.
- 1 . It would be good to have more written material.
- 1 . There should be more exercise included in the session.
- 1 . It was a good thing to have done.
- 1 . It was a painless approach.
- 1 . There should be more practise of relaxation response.
- 1 . More advance description of workshop.
- 1 . It was a learning experience without being treated like a student.
- 1 . The title of the workshop should identify the preventative aspects.

- 1 . The leader should interview each participant regarding life-planning at mid-point of each session.
 - 1 . I usually withdraw and role play but I stayed involved.
-

Discussion

It became apparent from comments made by participants throughout the workshop meeting and in discussions afterward that the decision to make changes in life had not arisen as a result of the workshop. Many participants had made the decision to effect changes in their lives before the opportunity of the the workshop arose. The workshop therefore was unlikely to be the agent of change for these people but rather an opportunity to identify areas for change and the behavioral and cognitive skills to effect it. For these people, it would appear, the workshop was well timed in interrupting the stress cycle at a useful point of intervention.

This produces curiosity about the people, who, having the same characteristics of time in service and so forth, chose not to come. There are several possibilities that these people, having an external locus of control orientation, did not believe in their ability to change and therefore that identification and techniques for doing so are really useless.

It was mentioned by another teacher that she was worried regarding the political ramifications of being identified with a group who were "dealing with stress". It could be speculated that this is supportive of the external locus of control characteristic because it subscribes to the belief that other people or powers control the consequences of one's behavior. If this is a common concern among non-participants it may explain part of the reason that kept people away from the workshop.

It was also common that non-participants, in hurried passing, or via notes, or remarks to participants cited that they were too busy or under too much pressure to attend. While this may or may not follow with an external orientation, it does represent a thought pattern prior to the conscious decision to break the stress cycle and make changes. This is analagous to being able to force a client to attend a counseling session but not being able to force him to partake and therefore receive help. Even if time had been made specifically convenient to their schedules these people would have a high attrition rate because they would not have made the conscious investment in the process that is required before it can be effective.

The actual attrition rate among participants numbered only one. That person, afflicted with a terminal illness, was made very uncomfortable by the subject matter in the

opening of the workshop and chose to remove himself after two sessions (hours). Other participants who began with the workshop that was divided into five one-hour sessions held over five weeks were not able to complete all the sessions. They dealt with this in several ways. Two chose to join one of the two all-day versions of the workshop, therefore starting again and completing the entire curriculum. Their explanation showed that they considered the process valuable and they felt it was personally important enough to capture. For others who missed an occasional meeting, make-up sessions were conducted at their convenience. This was explained by one participant by saying that these individuals had respect and faith in the leader's knowledge and skills and therefore thought of it as a valuable undertaking. The idea that some people made a point of initial participation to aid the researcher must also be acknowledged. Characteristically after mentioning that motive they each followed by saying that they soon were "hooked" on the material and continued to attend for their own personal benefit.

It is apparent that age and gender are not distinguishing characteristics in bringing someone to the workshop but rather the number of years and dedication to teaching. The personal data questions recorded an almost unanimous love for teaching. Many people said that they had considered leaving for some other kind of employment but were drawn to staying

because of the nature of the job and the creativity and flexibility it allowed. Their notions of leaving reportedly were centered almost solely on the issue of pay being low for their teaching and more lucrative in related fields.

Job flexibility meant several different things to these people. It allows a certain amount of control over their work schedules thus making it possible for them to participate in the development of their families (cited equally by men and women) and in directing some energy into other creative pursuits (most often cited was music). The importance of this flexibility is great enough so that they have begun to worry that they are beginning to sacrifice job satisfaction and lack of advancement potential in order to maintain that state of affairs. This apparently motivated many to want to make changes and ultimately to attend the workshop.

These reasons dictated the importance of the outcome for the participants. The emphasis so many placed on the non-task oriented interaction they enjoyed with their colleagues in the workshop attests to the discovery and consequent reinforcement of the idea that each was not alone in her/his reasons for staying in teaching and that many shares interests that were outside of their major teaching topic areas. This generated much excitement and engaged the help of fellow participants as consultants both during the workshop session

and there is much evidence that it is continuing long after the workshops have concluded.

Participants also report being very alert to stressors now and that they hardly tolerate much of the external conditions that used to make them feel pressured as if once realizing that they are within our control as to whether we will allow ourselves to be upset or dictated to is three quarters of what it takes to defuse the situation. They reportedly crave more practise than the workshop allowed.

It appears that the more advantageous schedule for offering this workshop would be in two sessions dividing the material after the presentation of life-planning skills. This would allow the participants more time to develop a five-year plan before presenting parts of it to the group for feedback. In the second session, covering definitions and training in techniques for managing stress, balancing one's life-style and managing time; more time could be given to practise of the techniques both palliative and preventive. Ideally, this should be followed up by a third recap session three to six months later. This would continue to reinforce the value of group interaction and the skills which each member had developed. In addition, time could be given to providing strategies for solving problems of stress management that had arisen in the meantime.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This study has demonstrated the possible effectiveness of stress management techniques in allowing community college faculty and professional staff to experience a greater sense of control over their lives and therefore to increase their job and personal satisfaction.

To measure their perceived level of stress and the amount of control they could exercise, four questionnaires were administered. Three of these relate to different aspects of stress perception (state, trait and external events) and the fourth measures their belief in the amount of control they have over events in their lives (Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale).

The workshops presented the participants with a series of information sessions accompanied by exercises used to teach and illustrate the skills for management attendant to each. These sessions focused on values clarification, life-planning, stress management and time management. The participants were encouraged to present the results of each exercise/skill learned to another participant or group for feedback and suggestions.

The questionnaires were administered again two weeks subsequent to the conclusion of the workshop. Two to four

weeks afterward a follow-up interview was conducted singly with each participant. The results of comparing the scores of the pre-tests with the post-tests indicated that the Subjects experienced a rise in external stressful events but that their perception of their personal stress level did not rise. The subjects also reported using the post-tests, not as a measure of changes in their behavior, but as guidelines for applying their newly learned skills. Combining this with the results of the follow-up interviews, there is evidence of strong support for the hypothesis that internally oriented faculty and professional staff would utilize stress management techniques to increase their job and personal satisfaction. The Subjects reportedly value the new skills they learned and are actively practising a broad spectrum of techniques and skills that were presented in the workshop.

The results of the data collected also support speculation that those developmentally ready faculty who are not internally oriented, or those who are stuck in earlier stages, may not utilize personal development programs because they do not believe that the stress response is something they could intercept. If their belief is that the sources of stress are external and therefore not within their control, it would be useless, in their view, to attend a workshop or program. The reasons they provide are that they do not have time or that it is politically unwise to be associated with a

group studying stress. Further study is needed to determine whether there is a way that staff development programs of this kind can be useful or desirable for this group.

For the group who did volunteer and attend these workshops, the internally oriented, this form of staff development began to fill a void that the Subjects reported existed for them. Staff development programs within the community college system tend to focus on only improvement of professional job related skills. Previously there has never been an attempt to provide faculty and professional staff with a way of recharging their batteries and enriching their personal development which is a factor critical to job satisfaction as evidenced by the previous studies done on community college faculty (Brookes, 1980; Fields, 1981).

This study suggests that regularly scheduled sessions (perhaps every three months) that recap and develop the areas used in the workshop could be valuable and utilized by faculty who want to continue to develop life-style management techniques. Two factors that the participants emphasized are that the atmosphere is comfortable and trusting, and that this is an important encounter with colleagues in a non-task oriented setting. The investment that each person made in the members of their small group served to provide an on-going and supportive network. The members continue to reinforce each other as they converse in the hallways long after the

workshop is completed: an opportunity and level of friendship and camaraderie that did not exist (especially cutting across all academic departments) prior to the workshop.

Implications for further study. The stress profiles used to measure the amount of change in perception of stress by the participants showed themselves too weak when used in this way. Because they were adopted by the Subjects as guidelines for identifying areas for further change and management the validity of these instruments as measures of change is questionable. Scales badly need to be developed which can more objectively measure state and trait anxiety and how these can be lowered by use of stress management techniques.

It is also important to acknowledge the probable existence of the halo effect, especially in regard to the follow-up interviews. Subjects were aware of their contribution to this doctoral research and were also eager to be seen as having made progress in managing the things they had cited as stress producing initially. After investing time and emotional energy into a workshop of this kind it becomes important to the participant to be seen as successful. While the follow-up interview provides important closure to the client in this kind of personal consulting, another form of final interview might be more successful in reducing the participants need

and desire to report only the successful aspects of the workshop experience.

To aid participants entering a workshop format of this kind, a "warm-up" session or previously distributed literature might provide some useful education on the process of stress identification. This would perhaps enable them to use the stress profiles more as measures of actual perceived stress rather than as wishful thinking and image building in the pre-test and as self-discovery on the post-test. The self-discovery process should be brought about early, as the subject is being broached so that Subjects become invested in the process early.

Some other areas that bear research are:

. Why do primarily "internals" volunteer for stress management? Is it because only they can visualize a change in their lifestyles?

. Would "externals" actually be more needy than "internals"?

. Would the leader have to work on bringing about an internal perspective before stress management could be taught and effectively learned?

. How do we break into the cycle of high stress to allow these people to attend a workshop in which stress management skills are taught?

. How do we incorporate this kind of resource into existing academic frameworks of staff development in order for it to be utilized effectively?

. Studies need to be conducted to determine the long-term effectiveness of this type of stress management training.

Summary. As higher education moves into an era of hard choices both fiscally and programatically, and as faculty groups dig in their heels and resist being retrenched, the investment in keeping good teachers teaching well and feeling satisfied with their jobs and lives takes on new importance. Staff development programs as they currently exist are not going to provide and renew high levels of personal development and satisfaction. Often pure teaching improvement programs, while acknowledged as worthwhile, are viewed by faculty and staff negatively as yet another source of pressure. The people who feel very stressed often feel threatened by those programs because they believe them to be an attack on their current ability and performance. In their eyes it is as if to say that the very existence of those programs is a commentary (by administration?) that their current teaching skills are not up to par. This erodes morale.

Professional development programs that emphasize personal development and thereby increase job and personal satisfaction, may, in fact, set the stage for receptivity to teaching improvement programs. If the attitude of the faculty/staff members is healthy regarding her/himself and the role she or he plays then the desire and ability to continually hone and improve job skills follows easily and naturally. This study, then provides those in positions with responsibility to maintain high quality faculty and staff performance with evidence that a strong need exists for programs of personal development in the context of faculty and staff development.

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APPENDIX I

Internal versus External Scale (Rotter, 1966)

In the instructions subjects are asked to choose one statement from each of the following pairs.

- 1 a. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.
 b. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.
- 2 a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
 b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.
- 3 a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
 b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
- 4 a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
 b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.
- 5 a. The idea that teachers are unfair to student is nonsense.
 b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
- 6 a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
 b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
- 7 a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.
 b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
- 8 a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.
 b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they're like.
- 9 a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
 b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

- 10
 - a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.
 - b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.
- 11
 - a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
 - b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
- 12
 - a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
 - b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
- 13
 - a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
 - b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because may things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
- 14
 - a. There are certain people who are just no good.
 - b. There is some good in everybody.
- 15
 - a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
 - b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
- 16
 - a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
 - b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
- 17
 - a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, not control.
 - b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
- 18
 - a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
 - b. There really is no such thing as "luck".
- 19
 - a. One should always be willing to admit mistakes.
 - b. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.
- 20
 - a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
 - b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.

- 21 a. In the long run the bad things that happen to us
 are balanced by the good ones.
 b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability,
 ignorance, laziness or all three.
- 22 a. With enough effort we can wipe out political
 corruption.
 b. It is difficult for people to have much control
 over things politicians do in office.
- 23 a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at
 the grades they give.
 b. There is a direct connection between how hard I
 study and the grades I get.
- 24 a. A good leader expects people to decide for them-
 selves what they should do.
 b. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their
 jobs are.
- 25 a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over
 the things that happen to me.
 b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or
 luck plays an important role in my life.
- 26 a. People are lonely because they don't try to be
 friendly.
 b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please
 people, if they don't like you.
- 27 a. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high
 school.
 b. Team sports are an excellent way to build character.
- 28 a. What happens to me is my own doing.
 b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control
 over the direction my life is taking.
- 29 a. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians
 behave the way they do.
 b. In the long run the people are responsible for bad
 government on a national as well as on a local
 level.

APPENDIX II

STRESS PROFILE I

Professional and Personal Events

For each item please circle the number that represents the amount to which you agree.

- | | Strongly
Disagree..... | | | | Strongly
Agree |
|--|---------------------------|---|---|---|-------------------|
| 1. My attempts to delegate responsibility to others often fail to achieve desired results. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. I have a great deal of satisfaction from my current job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. I am frequently given responsibility beyond the authority of my position. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. I am pleased with the career path I am on. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. A lack of positive feedback from others, when our organization is running well, sometimes makes us feel unimportant and unappreciated. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. I am satisfied with the amount and quality of the "personal" time I have to myself. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Requisitions for needed personnel, equipment and supplies are frequently pigeon-holed. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Attempts to establish reasonable communication with very upset staff members often results in personal humiliation. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. My personal/social life is satisfying right now. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. I am unable to convey the goals or "big picture" of our department's operation to the administration; they seem unable to comprehend our problems. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Lack of communication from others often leaves me ill equipped to properly do my job. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

	Strongly Disagree.....				Strongly Agree
12. I sometimes find it difficult to remain cool under pressure.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I am satisfied with the amount and quality of my physical exercise and activities.	1	2	3	4	5
14. New supervisors sometimes fall short of expectations; this causes group morale problems.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Diverse education, socio-economic backgrounds, interests and goals of students make it difficult for me to do my job effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Day to day dynamics of department operations make establishment of priorities difficult.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Sometimes my responsibilities seem overwhelming, causing me anxiety.	1	2	3	4	5
18. "Game playing" by influential individuals has a negative impact on constructive communication and problem solving.	1	2	3	4	5
19. My work responsibilities never seem to end, therefore taking time away from my family.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Power struggles for control of the department create uncertainty and feelings of insecurity.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Review of problems with the administration rarely result in corrective action.	1	2	3	4	5
22. It is difficult to get enough support services for my work.	1	2	3	4	5
23. In any dispute our department always seems to be "guilty until proven innocent".	1	2	3	4	5

Strongly Strongly
Disagree.....Agree

24. I find it difficult to delegate responsibilities for fear of losing control of the operation 1 2 3 4 5
25. Opportunities for advancement and personal development are limited. 1 2 3 4 5
26. The chain of command crosses boundaries, this frequently causes conflict of interest and creates confusion. 1 2 3 4 5
27. Concern for other's work problems often leads me to take on their responsibilities myself resulting in overcommitment of my time and attentions. 1 2 3 4 5
28. I feel I have the opportunity to attain my goals. 1 2 3 4 5
29. I am satisfied with my personal level of accomplishment. 1 2 3 4 5
30. How long have you been a college teacher/professional?
_____.
31. How long have you been employed at Bunker Hill CC?
_____.
32. Why did you become a college teacher/professional?

_____.
33. Have you ever considered leaving college teaching/work?
_____.
If so, what has altered your decisions? _____
_____.

APPENDIX III

STRESS PROFILE II

Personality Type*

Instructions: For each question listed below, check "yes" if it applies to you, check "no" if it does not apply to you. Total your "yes" and "no" responses.

- | | Yes | No |
|---|-----|-----|
| 1. Do you have (a) a habit of explosively accentuating various key words in your ordinary speech even when there is not real need for such accentuation, and (b) a tendency to utter the last few words of your sentences far more rapidly than the opening words? | ___ | ___ |
| 2. Do you always move, walk, and eat rapidly? | ___ | ___ |
| 3. Do you feel an impatience with the rate at which most events take place? | ___ | ___ |
| 4. Do you find it difficult to restrain yourself from hurrying the speech of others and resort to the device of saying very quickly over and over again, "Uh huh, uh huh," or "Yes, yes, yes yes," to someone who is talking, unconsciously urging him to "get on with" or hasten his rate of speaking? | ___ | ___ |
| 5. Do you attempt to finish the sentences of persons speaking to you before they can? | ___ | ___ |
| 6. Do you become unduly irritated or even enraged when a car ahead of you in your lane runs at a pace you consider too slow? | ___ | ___ |
| 7. Do you find it anguishing to wait in a line or to wait your turn to be seated at a restaurant? | ___ | ___ |
| 8. Do you find it intolerable to watch others perform tasks you know you can do faster? | ___ | ___ |
| 9. Do you become impatient with yourself as you are obliged to perform repetitious duties (making out bank deposit slips, | ___ | ___ |

writing checks, washing and cleaning dishes, and so on), which are necessary but take you away from things you really have an interest in doing?

10. Do you find yourself hurrying your own reading or always attempting to obtain condensations or summaries of truly interesting and worthwhile literature? — —
11. Do you indulge in polyphasic thought or performance, frequently striving to think of or do two or more things simultaneously? — —
12. If, while trying to listen to another person's speech, do you persist in continuing to think about an irrelevant subject? — —
13. Similarly, if while golfing or fishing do you continue to ponder your business or professional problems? — —
14. While using an electric razor, do you attempt also to eat your breakfast or drive your car, or if while driving your car, do you attempt to dictate letters for you secretary? — —
15. Do you find it difficult to refrain from talking about or bringing the theme of any conversation around to those subjects which especially interest or intrigue you? When unable to accomplish this maneuver, do you pretend to listen but really remain preoccupied with your own thoughts? — —
16. Do you almost always feel vaguely guilty when you relax and do absolutely nothing for several hours to several days? — —
17. Do you have little time to spare to become the things worth being because you are so preoccupied with getting the things worth having? — —
18. Do you attempt to schedule more and more in less and less time, and in doing so make fewer and fewer allowances for unforeseen contingencies? — —

- | | | | |
|-----|---|---|---|
| 19. | Do you resort to certain characteristic gestures or nervous tics. For example, when in conversation, do you frequently clench your fist, or bang you hand upon a table or pound one fist into the palm of your other hand in order to emphasize a conversational point? | — | — |
| 20. | Do you habitually clench your jaw, or even grind your teeth? | — | — |
| 21. | Do you believe that whatever success you have enjoyed has been due in good part to your ability to get things done faster than your fellow men? | — | — |
| 22. | Are you afraid to stop doing everything faster and faster? | — | — |
| 23. | Do you find yourself increasingly and ineluctably committed to translating and evaluating not only your own but also the activities of other in terms of "numbers"? | — | — |
| 24. | Are you completely free of all the habits and exhibit none of the traits listed? | — | — |
| 25. | Do you ever suffer from a sense of time urgency with its accompanying impatience? | — | — |
| 26. | Do you harbor no free-floating hostility, and do you feel no need to display or discuss either your achievements or accomplishments unless such exposure is demanded by the situation? | — | — |
| 27. | When you play, do you find fun and relaxation? | — | — |
| 28. | Do you relax without guilt, just as you work without agitation? | — | — |
| | Totals | — | — |

* From TYPE A BEHAVIOR AND YOUR HEART, by Meyer Friedman, M.D. and Ray H. Rosenman, M.D. Copyright c 1974 by Meyer Friedman, Reprinted by permission of Alfred A. Knopf, Inc.

APPENDIX IV

STRESS PROFILE III

Life Events*

Instructions: Check off each life event that has happened to you during the past 12 months. Total the Life Change Unit Values.

	<u>Life Change</u>	<u>Unit Value</u>
1. Death of spouse	100	___
2. Divorce	73	___
3. Marital separation from mate	65	___
4. Detention in jail or other institution	63	___
5. Death of a close family member	63	___
6. Major personal injury or illness	53	___
7. Marriage	50	___
8. Being fired at work	47	___
9. Marital reconcilliation with mate	45	___
10. Retirement from work	45	___
11. Major change in the health or behavior of a family member	44	___
12. Pregnancy	40	___
13. Sexual difficulties	39	___
14. Gaining a new family member (through birth, adoption, oldster moving in, etc.)	39	___
15. Major business readjustment (merger, reorganization, bankruptcy, etc.)	39	___
16. Major change in financial status (a lot worse off or a lot better off than usual)	39	___
17. Death of a close friend	37	___

	<u>Life Change</u>	<u>Unit Value</u>
18. Changing to a different line of work	36	___
19. Major changes in the number of arguments with spouse (either a lot more or a lot less than usual regarding child rearing, personal habits, etc.)	35	___
20. Taking on a mortgage greater than \$10,000 (purchasing a home, business, etc.)	31	___
21. Foreclosure on a mortgage or loan	30	___
22. Major change in responsibilities at work (promotion, demotion, lateral transfer)	29	___
23. Son or daughter leaving home (marriage, attending college, etc.)	29	___
24. In-law troubles	29	___
25. Outstanding personal achievement	28	___
26. Wife beginning or ceasing work outside the home	26	___
27. Beginning or ceasing formal schooling	26	___
28. Major change in living conditions (building a new home, remodeling, deterioration of home or neighborhood)	25	___
29. Revision of personal habits (dress, manners, associations, etc.)	24	___
30. Troubles with the boss	23	___
31. Major change in working hours or conditions	20	___
32. Change in residence	20	___
33. Changing to a new school	20	___
34. Major change in usual type and/or amount of recreation	19	___

	<u>Life Change</u>	<u>Unit Value</u>
35. Major change in church activities (a lot more or a lot less than usual)	19	—
36. Major change in social activities (clubs, dancing, movies, visiting, etc.)	18	—
37. Taking on a mortgage or loan of less than \$10,000 (purchasing a new car, building in-ground pool)	17	—
38. Major change in sleeping habits (a lot more or a lot less sleep, change in part of day when asleep)	16	—
39. Major change in number of family get- togethers (a lot more or a lot less than usual)	15	—
40. Major change in eating habits (a lot more or a lot less food, very different meal hours or surroundings)	15	—
41. Vacation	13	—
42. Christmas.	12	—
43. Minor violations of the law (e.g. traffic tickets, disturbing the peace, etc.)	11	—
Total Life change Unit Values		—

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